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To improve social studies in grades K-12, the Syracuse Social Studies Curriculum Center engaged in a 5-year study to identify major concepts in social studies and to develop materials and techniques for teaching these concepts at various grade levels. The results of this research revealed that (1) social studies concepts can be developed for students of varying abilities and levels of maturity and ought to be included in the curriculum, (2) concepts generate sub-concepts which should be included in social studies instruction, (3) social studies concepts overlap into many subject areas and are best taught by an interdisciplinary approach, (4) social studies instructors at the local level should decide for themselves the scope and sequence of concepts to be included within a particular curriculum, and (5) statements by notable scholars on major social studies concepts are valuable resources in preparing pupil materials. (An appendix details the Center's recent activities in using the major concepts to develop curriculum materials for the urban disadvantaged learner.) See also TE 499 909 and TE 499 939. (MP)

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THE SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM CENTER OF SYRACUSE UNIVERSITY DEVOTED TO THE IDENTIFICATION OF MAJOR SOCIAL SCIENCE CONCEPTS AND THEIR UTILIZATION IN INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS.

BY

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Syracuse, New York

June 1968

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SUMMARY

In 1962, a group of faculty from the Maxwell Graduate School of Citizenship and Public Affairs and the School of Education, at Syracuse University, was gathered at the suggestion of Dr. Roy A. Price to determine constructive action which might be undertaken to improve the curriculum and the teaching of social studies, K-12. A series of eight monthly seminars was established during which outstanding experts from social science disciplines and teacher education presented papers for discussion. These seminars were supported by a grant from the Esso and the Danforth Foundations.

By 1963, the objective of the above group had crystallized. A proposal for a Social Studies Curriculum Center devoted to the identification of major concepts from the Social Sciences, development of materials and techniques for teaching these concepts, and evaluation of their applicability and utility at various grade levels was presented to the United States Office of Education. A grant from this office permitted the Syracuse Social Studies Curriculum Center to undertake the above assignment over a five year period.

Shortly thereafter, at the request of the United States Office of Education a conference was hosted by Syracuse University at its Sagamore Conference Center in the Adirondack Mountains. The topic of concentration of the conference was the Needed Research in the social sciences. Publication of the conference papers and ensuing discussion was undertaken by the National Council for the Social Studies in its Bulletin #1, Needed Research in the Social Sciences.

During 1963 and 1964, the Center contracted the preparation of position papers by scholars of the various social science disciplines. More than 500 pages of position papers were presented to the Center by scholars seeking to assist in the identification of the major concepts in their disciplines.

Identification of concepts, mined from the position paper by the Center staff, required most of the fall and winter of 1964. Definitions were prepared for the identified concepts. This eventually involved the preparation of definition outlines, varying from ten to thirty-five pages. Most outlines required several drafts to meet the combined criticism of the Center staff meeting in analytical sessions. From the hundreds of pages of outline drafts, brief definitions were extracted and presented in Major Concepts for the Social Studies, a publication of the Social Studies Curriculum Center in November 1965. Three printings of this publication have been exhausted.

During the summer of 1965, the academic year 1965-66, and the summer of 1966, pupil materials were prepared from the outlines provided to staff writers and teacher consultants. A team of testing experts was contracted which prepared evaluation tools. During the academic year 1966-67, selected sets of pupil materials were tried out and evaluated in cooperating schools in seven states. Throughout the period from 1965 through 1968 members of the Social Studies Curriculum Center staff presented programs on conceptual curriculum and teaching to two annual meetings of the National Council for the Social Studies and to three annual meetings of the New York State Council for the Social Studies. Dozens of other presentations were made to regional councils, meetings of state specialists and to combined school meetings. In response to hundreds of requests the Center, in the spring of 1968, published a 48 page booklet defining the term "concept", and indicating the best method of presenting concepts in the classroom. This book is entitled: Social Science Concepts and the Classroom.

Evaluation of the above program indicates:

1. Selection of basic concepts for inclusion in the curriculum is both feasible and desirable.

2. Concepts overlap to the point that the development of one concept requires attention to a cluster of other concepts, which become sub-concepts.

3. Concepts can be developed for groups of varying ability and at different levels of maturity.

4. Not only is the interdisciplinary approach in the social studies desirable for concept development, but other areas of the curriculum should also be involved in order that the concept the pupil develops may take on a deeper and broader meaning.

5. The scope and sequence which schools require for the inclusion of concepts within their curriculum can probably be best handled locally because of the great variety of curriculum patterns, the differing ability levels of students, and the need for teachers to become directly involved in the making of curriculum decisions.

INTRODUCTION

Sputnik brought a new awareness of the night skies as the public fruitlessly searched for the first flickering signs of the satellite's trail around the earth. And in those first hours of spinning through the heavens Sputnik shattered public complacency over American education. Parents, congressmen, governors, state departments of education, principals, teachers, and journalists began to recall those pleas for revision and upgrading of American schools, which had been presented by a handful of critics to a deafened nation since the end of the second World War. Not surprisingly, the newly aroused interest in education and the demands for quality were centered on the natural and physical sciences. Sputnik was a challenge, and the public demanded that American science meet that challenge. Almost immediately since education was funded for revision.

Dr. Roy A. Price, as a past president of the National Council for the Social Studies and one of the founders of the New York State Council for the Social Studies, had long been reminding his colleagues that there had been no overall curricular changes in the social studies since 1916. With government and foundation funding for the revision of science education, Price renewed his efforts to obtain support for research and development in social studies curriculum. He believed that with the Maxwell Graduate School of Citizenship and Public Affairs already in existence at Syracuse University that Maxwell had a citizenship obligation second to none in the nation. This, plus the fact that he personally was a dual professor at Syracuse, holding the rank of professor in both the Maxwell Graduate School and in the School of Education, permitted him to press for further exploration by both schools.

Price approached Dean Stephen Bailey of the Maxwell Graduate School concerning the practicability of a faculty seminar. With the support of the Dean, he explored possibilities for funding such a seminar. Although correspondence with one major corporation was not even answered, he found this not to be the pattern for all industry or foundations. Both the Esso Foundation and the Danforth Foundation contributed funds, making possible the provision for the appropriate setting and for the payment of outside experts who could stimulate new probing of the social science curriculum in the elementary and secondary schools.

Fortunately, Dr. Price had edited the N. C. S. S. yearbook of 1958. New Viewpoints In the Social Sciences, in demand by teachers for years after its first printing, made more clear the problems of the expanding body of social sciences. The authors of the articles in the yearbook had noted the impact of this expansion upon the teaching in the social studies; throughout, academic lag was stressed. Using some of the ideas in New Viewpoints In the Social Sciences as a springboard for research and development in the teaching of social studies, Price outlined the need for research by a team of scholars in the social sciences, scholars in professional education, and teachers from the elementary and secondary schools. The basic idea behind the seminars which he proposed was an exchange of ideas and a breaking down of communications barriers between these groups. Each would educate the other.

During the seminars, which are described in Chapter I of this report, it became clear that much needed doing which was not being done, and that the Maxwell Graduate School had an interest in meeting these needs.

The announcement of the United States Office of Education concerning funding for curriculum development in the social sciences made possible the next step, namely, that of curriculum revision. Dean Bailey, accompanied by Price, headed for Washington and talks on the funding of social studies curriculum research and development. The United States Office of Education indicated a desire to launch such research and development programs as soon as possible. Having determined a need to carry out such research, not only at Syracuse but at other centers, the Office of Education asked, "Will you conduct a conference on needed research in the social sciences?" Such a conference was to bring in scholars from various universities, as well as officers from the United States Office of Education and teachers from secondary schools. This was not to be just a conference for the benefit of Syracuse University or local school systems. Instead, it was the intent of the conference to launch project Social Studies throughout the country.

Progress over the next five years at the Social Studies Curriculum Center at Syracuse University may appear in retrospect to have been exasperatingly slow, for today we talk easily in the profession of conceptual approaches, a discovery method in the presentation of information from which concepts are developed, and of lists of social science concepts themselves. But in the spring of 1963, these terms were foreign to most social scientists. The progress which those of us who were concerned with the Social Studies Curriculum Center had viewed at close hand, was actually possible only because we did not begin within a vacuum. It was Roy Price's years of close acquaintance with the problems besetting the field which started the Social Studies Curriculum Center in high gear. Because the staff has been well aware of this, because it is important for the reader to be aware of this background which determined the early direction to be pursued by the Social Studies Center, and because it would not otherwise have been mentioned in this report, I requested permission to write the introduction to this report.

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CHAPTER I

THE FACULTY SEMINARS, 1962-1963

The Social Studies Curriculum Center did not spring full bloom from the early expression of concern at Syracuse University. Prior to the initiation of the Center and later during the first months of its operation. A year long series of faculty seminars centered around the teaching of the social studies in elementary and secondary schools. Support for these seminars was granted by the Danforth Foundation and the Esso foundation. Among the participants were twelve members of the social science departments of the Maxwell School, five faculty members from the School of Education, three classroom teachers who are also department heads in their respective schools, the supervisor of social studies instruction in the Syracuse Public Schools, and the supervisor of social studies in the New York State Department of Education. Those who participated in the faculty seminar included:

Dean Stephen K. Bailey, Dean, Maxwell Graduate School of Citizenship and Public Affairs and Professor of Political Science

Professor Nelson Blake, Professor of History

Professor Stuart Gerry Brown, Maxwell Professor of American Civilization

Professor Hobert W. Burns, Professor of Education

Professor Thomas E. Clayton, Professor of Education

Robert J. Cooke, Dual Professor Social Science and Education

Professor George Cressey, Maxwell Professor of Geography

Professor Melvin A. Eggers, Chairman, Department of Economics

Professor Eric F. Gardner, Chairman, Psychology Department

Professor Paul Halverson, Professor of Education

Professor Donn V. Hart, Professor of Sociology and Anthropology

Professor C. W. Hunnicutt, Professor of Education

Professor Preston James, Chairman, Department of Geography, Textbook author, Editor 29th Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies on The Teaching of Geography

Professor Paul Meadows, Chairman, Department of Sociology and Anthropology

Professor Spencer Parratt, Professor of Political Science

Professor Sidney Sufrin, Professor of Economics

Dean Virgil Rogers, Dean, School of Education

Professor Michael O. Sawyer, Professor of Citizenship and Political Science

Dr. Franklyn Barry, Superintendent of North Syracuse Central Schools

Mrs. Marie Cady, Chairman for the Social Studies, Syracuse Board of Education

Mrs. Verna S. Fancett, Chairman of Social Studies, Jamesville-Dewitt High School

Dr. M. L. Frankel, Director, Joint Council on Economic Education

Dr. Helen Maney, Chairman of Social Studies, Geneva High School

Miss Mildred McChesney, The State Education Department at Albany

Miss Betty Robinson, Social Studies Teacher, Cazenovia Central School

Dr. Gerald W. Snyder, The Milne School, New York State Teachers College at Albany

The purpose of the faculty seminars was fourfold. First, the seminars served to explore the means of revising the teaching of the social studies at the public school level. Second, they served to consider the contributions each of the academic social science disciplines could make to the teaching of the social sciences. Third, they served to study the structure (basic ideas and concepts) of the social science disciplines because of the belief that the understanding of any discipline can thereby be enhanced. And last, the seminars served to identify interested faculty personnel, equipped with knowledge growing out of the seminar, who might be interested in initiating a project that would lead to direct contact with pilot school projects.

Members of the faculty and administration at Syracuse University have demonstrated an interest in the teaching of the social studies over an extended period of time. As early as 1945, the Maxwell School developed and published through the National Council for the Social Studies a series of resource units entitled The Structure of Local Government, Parties and Politics in the Local Community, and Community Planning. Workshops for teachers have been held in Curriculum Development, Intercultural Education, Economic Education and The Newspaper in the Classroom. The annual Citizenship Education Conference has been held for the past seventeen years involving cooperation of more than two hundred fifty secondary schools throughout New York State. Members of the faculty of the Maxwell School and of the School of Education have been actively engaged as authors, lecturers and curriculum consultants in this field.

The faculty seminars, held monthly from October, 1962 to June, 1963, focused upon presentations by individuals or panels, and were followed by group discussion. Some of the seminars were devoted to the consideration of the contributions from each of the social sciences. On four such occasions, the disciplines were represented by outstanding off campus scholars such as Dr. Paul Ward, President of Sarah Lawrence College (history), Dr. Floyd Bond, Dean of the School of Business Administration at the University of Michigan (economics), Dr. Neal Gross, Professor of Sociology at Harvard University (sociology), and Dr. Jerome Bruner, Professor of Psychology at Harvard University (education). Other faculty seminars were concerned with such topics as (1) the contributions of International studies to the curriculum, (2) the metropolitan community and its implications for education, (3) the education for teachers and (4) models for the future in social studies education.

FACULTY SEMINAR #1: OCTOBER 16, 1962

The initial faculty seminar was devoted to assessing the present status of social studies curricula. Professor C. W. Hunnicutt from the School of Education at Syracuse University opened the discussion with a brief statement on the significant trends of social studies in the elementary schools.

First, he noted, there was an increasing trend toward a unified rather than a departmentalized program.

Second, he remarked, there was an increasing focus upon large concepts or ideas to which to attach factual knowledge. References were made to the attempt in California to identify the larger concepts from each of the social science disciplines, as well as to the effort of a committee of the National Council for the Social Studies to identify the major concepts to be taught.

Third, there was a growing concern that the present social studies program is not sufficiently vigorous and demanding of student's attention.

Fourth, greater emphasis was being given to teach children to learn to think through problem areas through devices such as unfinished stories, role playing, and psycho drama.

Professor Hunnicutt concluded with a plea for greater emphasis upon objectives which go beyond accumulation of factual knowledge, including character development, attitudes and skills.

Howard Cummings, Specialist in Geography and the Social Sciences for the United States Office of Education, while seconding the suggestions of Professor Hunnicutt, pointed to the work of Piaget of Princeton and Bruner of Harvard, who suggest that it is both possible and desirable to teach major concepts and the structure of disciplines at early age levels. In light of these theoretical advances, Dr. Cummings proceeded to assess the present status of the social studies at the secondary level. In reference to grades eleven and twelve, Dr. Cummings pointed out that there had been no major revision of the social studies curriculum since that following the report of the Committee of Ten in 1916. That report recommended a Problems of Democracy course for grade twelve. In the 1920's, legislatures mandated a one year American History course together with a half year of Civics and a half year of economics or one full year of Problems of Democracy. He pointed out that the tenth grade course, generally dedicated to developing worldmindedness, had moved in the direction of area studies. Moreover, there had also been a tendency to depart from the chronological approach in favor of an organization around major ideas and area study. While there had been a shift in the ninth grade curricula from community study to a more marked emphasis on world geography, Dr. Cummings noted the need for more careful articulation of the world geography course in grade nine with the world history in grade ten into a two-year sequence.

Dr. Stephen K. Bailey, Dean of the Maxwell Graduate School of Citizenship and Public Affairs, examined social studies curricula from the perspective of the university. He pointed out that the problems in changing the teaching of the social studies were not limited to our ability to conceptualize a new curriculum. Social science itself transcends departmental lines in matters of orientation, method, handling data, and theory building. Consequently, Dean Bailey suggested four major emphases in the teaching of the social studies:

1. Scientific method: We should orient to the college and university approach to the social sciences, and assist students to reach for postulates which the economist, the sociologist, the political scientist the historian, the geographer and others provide and help students to organize data.

2. Orientation in time and space: We should teach students where they live in the world in relation to other parts of the world, as well as orienting them to their place in history.

3. Basic value conflicts: We should provide an understanding of basic value conflicts which plague American society and the world society. Students should understand these value conflicts and the reasons for these conflicts in history. We live and will continue to live in a highly pluralistic world, and students should have a realistic view of value conflicts which exist.

4. Institutional functions and the resolution of conflict: Students should acquire a realistic appreciation of institutional functions in our society which exist to resolve conflict. Since conflict is ubiquitous, the student should learn to deal with it realistically.

In the discussion which followed these three presentations by Mssrs. Hunnicutt, Cummings and Bailey, a number of relevant points were emphasized. First, whereas mathematicians and scientists aim to produce a given number of people skilled in their disciplines, social scientists are confronted with the necessity of more widespread education for the citizen. Second, in the teaching of the social sciences we have the obligation to describe how and why, rather than what is moral and what is amoral. Third, it was generally agreed that a desirable goal of social studies education was to have students think as social scientists; that is, students should develop an awareness of the canons of truth and judgment. And finally, it was suggested that the seminar could provide valuable leadership in studying related problems this year and in working experimentally with pilot and demonstration schools in subsequent years.

FACULTY SEMINAR #2: NOVEMBER 13, 1962

The second faculty seminar, devoted to the general topic of the relation between history and the social sciences, centered around a discussion paper delivered by Dr. Paul Ward, eminent historian and President of Sarah Lawrence College. Dr. Ward presented several key propositions as the foundation for the hypothesis which he subsequently advanced. These propositions can be stated briefly as follows. First, the study of history loses its force for teachers and students, and becomes ineffective in research, when its practitioners are influenced by science and its methods in one sort of way; the opposite happens when the influence is of another sort; and these influences urgently need to be defined. Second, historians and social scientists are separated by a gap in communication about their subject. This gap is not simply due to rivalry or ignorance--although it is often compounded with both of these, on both sides. Third, there exists today a more or less similar gap relationship within each of the social sciences between humanistic-historical thinking and methematical-scientific thinking. And fourth, a definite body of rules exists for effective historical scholarship. These rules can be summarized thus:

a. Issues and meanings in historical work are to be treated in the form of particular cases and instances.

b. Evidence must be documented with sufficient detail.

c. The exact sequence of events must be made explicit.

d. The surrounding context of time and place must be considered.

e. The human color of each event must be brought out sharply.

f. The way in which one or more acts saw things must be developed successively.

The remaining segment of Dr. Ward's address was an attempt to explicate and substantiate his central hypothesis that the gap-relationship between historians and social scientists is essentially one in mode of thought. Although Dr. Ward suggests that both are in some sense equally rigorous and reliable, he distinguishes between the more nomothetic logic A (which he says can remind us of Aristotle) and the more idiographic logic C (which he says can remind us of Collingwood).

The implications of Dr. Ward's presentation provoked wide discussion by members of the seminar. Professor Nelson Blake, of the Syracuse University History Department, posited the following suggestions in reaction to the presentation. First, it may perhaps be unwise to speak of the social sciences in general without explicitly acknowledging the significant differences between the various disciplines. Second, history should not be organized in such a fashion as to lose sense of the chronological sequence; that is, history should not go overboard on a topical approach to the social studies. Third, history should not lose its human character. History does not deal with abstractions, but rather with real people. Fourth, history should not be over-simplified, and unitary causal analysis should be avoided. Finally, history involves a way of thinking. Historians have a particular point of view and a particular orientation.

FACULTY SEMINAR #3: DECEMBER 11, 1962

The third faculty seminar, devoted to the general topic of the contributions of economics to the social studies curriculum, was addressed by two outstanding authorities in the field of economic education. The first presentation was made by Dr. Floyd Bond, Dean of the University of Michigan's School of Business Administration. After briefly summarizing his work in the field of economic education with the Committee for Economic Development, Dr. Bond discussed what he considered to be the relevance of economics to the social studies. He contended that it is impossible for individuals in a democratic society to function adequately without a basic understanding of the processes of economics of modern societies. It is imperative that students be impressed with both the vast complexity of economic interrelationships in any technological society and the high degree of cooperation required for the functioning of that society. Underlying this complexity, however, is a basic economic order, and it is this order which must be made intelligible to our future citizens.

Dr. Bond demonstrated the relevancy of economics to the social studies curriculum by examining the concept of scarcity, one of the discipline's central concepts. Scarcity, in the economist's sense, is used to describe the situation in which a product is not available in sufficient quantity to satisfy the fundamental wants of all people in a society. Since scarcity implies the need for a conscious choice as to the methods of production and distribution, then it logically follows that scarcity must exist in any society with established methods of production and distribution. Thus, scarcity is a fundamental condition of all economic systems.

The ubiquity of scarcity produces a parallel ubiquity of choice, a closely associated concept in economics. The economic principle of opportunity cost (i.e., the cost of any item is measured in terms of sacrificed alternatives) has far reaching implications for public policy decisions. An understanding of the basic concept of opportunity cost can throw light on what people consider to be the truly complex and controversial issues of our time. Moreover, such an understanding of basic economic concepts is valuable for instilling in students the habits of straight thinking.

The second speaker for the seminar was M. L. Frankel, Director of the Joint Council on Economic Education, who considered both the problems and the proven approaches involved in affecting change in social studies curricula. The problems involved in introducing economics into the social studies curricula--which hold true for the other social sciences as well--include (1) the pressures put upon curriculum planners, administrators, and teachers to emphasize a particular orientation to the controversial issues of the social sciences, (2) inadequate teacher preparation, (3) the near universal dominance of history in the social studies, (4) teacher apathy, (5) the inability and/or unwillingness of teachers to integrate content and method, and (6) the inertia of textbook publishers.

The second aspect of Dr. Frankel's presentation considered some of the generally accepted postulates of curriculum change and reorganization.

First, since curriculum revision involves changes in values, methods, attitudes and norms, an evolutionary approach will produce more effective results than a revolutionary one. Second, the contributions of the various social sciences can be integrated into the basic structure of the social studies. Curriculum change should not be tantamount to breaking new ground by introducing an entirely new structure. Third, the initial step in curriculum change is to bring about a change in the substantive background of the teacher. In addition to formal teacher re-education, Dr. Frankel suggests that experiments in curriculum content and method should be conducted using the best teachers. These teachers will then communicate the results and excitement of their experiment to their colleagues. Fourth, learning is most successful when social science content is taught within a context that is familiar to the student. And last, it is important to achieve the cooperation and sponsorship between school systems and the various community groups.

FACULTY SEMINAR #4: JANUARY 10, 1963

Dr. Neal Gross, Professor of Sociology at Harvard University, made the major presentation at the fourth faculty seminar, devoted to the general topic of the contribution of sociology to the social studies. To Dr. Gross the examination of the contribution of sociology to the social studies required specification of whether the focus is on simply upgrading the present content of the social studies or changing the basic structure and essential content of the social studies. Consequently, he discussed both sets of contributions separately.

In reference to the first set of contributions--i.e., upgrading existing types of social studies programs--Dr. Gross isolated six ways in which sociology can enhance the effectiveness of the social studies. First, sociology can develop resource materials for units and courses in the social studies. More specifically, this could include the preparation of bibliographies of published sociological literature, reprinting sociological literature not readily available to social studies teachers and their students, the development of an evaluative inventory of films, recordings, and other teaching aids dealing with sociologically relevant topics, and the preparation of a new body of sociological materials for use in social studies courses. Second, sociology can improve the competency of social studies teachers through offering special courses and workshops in sociology for teachers with special emphasis on its use in the social studies curriculum. Third, sociology could develop units for courses such as Problems of American Democracy that demonstrate the sociological approach and the empirical findings of sociological studies. Fourth, sociology could develop units that deal with topics usually treated in the elementary schools (such as the family and the community), but examine them in a sociological perspective and in a more specific manner. Fifth, sociology could develop a rigorous and challenging course in sociology at the high school level. And last, sociology could develop a high level course in the introduction to the social sciences. The backbone of such a course could be the element which is common to all social science disciplines: the scientific method. This would involve a study of the scientific method per se, and the way it is applied to central social issues.

Professor Gross went on to consider the type of contributions he felt sociologists could make toward the development of a totally new social studies curriculum firmly rooted in the social sciences. The first such contribution derives from the sociologists' orientation to school systems as complex social organizations and as subsystems of the community and of society. That is, the sociologist's contribution is in his insistence on the need to examine critically the objectives of social studies curricula and the type of structural arrangements required to accomplish them. A second type of contribution of the sociologist is to spell out both the major concepts of his discipline and their significance to elementary and secondary education. In addition to the concepts which sociology shares with other social sciences (i.e., the scientific method, equilibrium and disequilibrium, division of labor, interdependence, and the social system), Professor Gross set forth those basic concepts which fall more exclusively within the domain of sociology. These include conflict, values, norms, culture, socialization, status, role, and the manifest and latent functions of social institutions.

FACULTY SEMINAR #5: FEBRUARY 5, 1963

Dr. Preston James, Professor of Geography at Syracuse University, addressed the fifth faculty seminar which was devoted to the central theme of the contributions of geography to the social studies. Professor James opened with a plea for incorporating more of the right kind of geographic content into the social studies. After World War I geography as taught in the elementary and secondary schools was almost exclusively physical geography, in no way connected with things social. As a result, the initial attempts to incorporate geography into curricula were based on near complete illiteracy. Not only were bad maps being drawn, but bad conclusions were being drawn from these maps.

Since that time geography within the social studies curriculum has improved, but still remains eroneous, based on half truths and misconceptions. Contrary to public opinion, geography is not tantamount to the environmental determinism of human behavior. For example, deserts do not determine pastoralism as a means of livelihood, nor do rivers determine the location of cities. Rather geography deals with significant differences in space (as opposed to history which deals with differences in time) and the consequences of these differences. In other words, the task of geography is to ask and answer the question "What is where, to what extent, and why?" The geographer, therefore, deals with many variables besides physical environment, such as culture, technology, and natural resources.

Professor James made the theoretical observation that in geography, as in other social sciences, it is important to distinguish between different levels of generalization. That is, he differentiates between (1) percepts (directly observed phenomena), (2) ideas (generic forms of percepts), (3) concepts (arrangements of ideas), and (4) theory (verified relationships among concepts). Although the term "concept" has been employed to refer to definitions (2), (3) and (4), Professor James suggests that for purposes of the seminar, the second usage (i.e., a generic form of percept) should be adopted to refer to geographic concepts. It is imperative that the geographer be conscious of the level of abstraction at which he is working.

The central problem facing curriculum planners is how to integrate in a meaningful way the social studies with today's established geographic concepts. There is, moreover, a considerable need for the improvement of skills such as greater "map literacy." However, there remains a basic lack of agreement even within the fraternity of professional geographers as to how this synthesis should be affected. One group of geographers would emphasize content concepts. That is, they would seek to develop a general understanding of the arrangement of the major physical and human features of the face of the earth. A second group would emphasize method concepts. That is, they would seek to inculcate those skills needed for the solution of geographic problems. Although Professor James favors the first approach, both groups emphasize concepts; that is, both groups seek an understanding of conceptual structures rather than simple memorization of details.

FACULTY SEMINAR #6: MARCH 12, 1963

The sixth faculty seminar was addressed by a panel of educators whose members were all intimately involved in the social studies curriculum at the secondary and elementary levels.

The first presentation by Miss Elizabeth Robinson, Chairman of Social Studies at Cazenovia Central Schools, covered problems involved in providing appropriate instruction for different levels of ability. Miss Robinson noted the trend during the last fifteen years toward more homogeneous grouping which had developed in response to the reactions at both ends of the ability scale, for some students found their work too difficult while others found it unchallenging. Some of the major variables which determined the level of instruction were (1) the reading level of the student, (2) writing level of the student, and (3) motivation. One of the unfortunate consequences of homogeneous grouping has been that while the students at both extremes of the ability scale receive special attention, the average students have, by and large, been neglected.

Although there has been general agreement that varying levels of ability should be accounted for, there has been no consensus as to how this should be done. Should there be different courses for different levels of ability, or should the same courses be offered utilizing different methods, materials and activities for each level? Should the social studies teacher be a reading teacher as well or should more emphasis be placed on the training of reading specialists? Should the social studies curriculum be based on the principle of "post holing" or should it aim at maximum breadth? Should the amount of generalization vary directly with the student's ability or should students at every level be given the same amount of generalization?

The second member of the panel, Mrs. Verna Fancett, Chairman of the Social Studies Department at Jamesville-Dewitt High School, spoke on the general topic of changes and trends in social studies curricula on the national scene. Mrs. Fancett cited the 1962 study by Willis D. Moreland at the University of Nebraska to illustrate the considerable variety of course offerings in the social studies throughout the country. The list included such widely accepted courses as American History, World History and Geography to the more esoteric offerings such as Latin American History, Psychology, sociology and driver education. Mrs. Fancett also cited a report of the Social Studies Curriculum Committee of the National Association of Secondary School Principals (1961) which suggested three approaches to the scope and sequence of social studies curricula. While the three suggested approaches were general enough to permit most combinations of courses found in the majority of schools today, the Committee recognized that there was no best program, and that the three illustrations should serve only as suggestions. Although there had been discussion regarding the adviseability of a national social studies curriculum, virtually all curriculum change by 1963 was instituted at the state and local levels.

In terms of changes taking place in social studies curricula throughout the nation, Mrs. Fancett cited the following general trends: First, the growing emphasis on planning curricula for K through 12, rather than fragmenting it into elementary, junior high, and senior high curricula. This implies that there should be a logical progressive sequence throughout all twelve years of education. Second, skills, methods, and techniques were being afforded greater attention at the expense of mere memorization of facts. Third, there was an increasing emphasis on non-Western cultures *per se*, rather than as curious appendages to Western history. And finally, the social studies were utilizing team teaching to a greater extent, thereby making the best possible use of the individual strengths of faculty members.

Miss Mildred McChesney, Supervisor of Social Studies for the New York Education Department, addressed herself to the general question of how changes in the curriculum are brought about. She expressed optimism that the faculty seminar was perfectly able to develop any type of curriculum it desired, but the real problem was how to get this curriculum accepted and utilized by the school systems. Miss McChesney applied the threefold categorization of "honor," "average," and "slow learner," usually reserved for students, to the teaching profession. Citing an informal survey of thirty teachers, she pointed out that only one teacher thought social studies should be geared to citizenship rather than proficiency in an academic discipline. This same informal survey revealed a dearth of constructive suggestions for revisions in the social studies curricula. Consequently, considerable groundwork in teacher re-education had to precede any conceptual curriculum, for not more than ten percent of the teachers were prepared to teach within the framework of such a curriculum. Furthermore, Miss McChesney stated, the term "concept" was not at all clear in the minds of most teachers. The relationship between concepts and value systems escaped most teachers at the elementary and secondary levels. This problem was further aggravated by the persistence of antiquated techniques of teaching.

Dr. Gerald Snyder from the Milne School at Albany State Teachers College, spoke next on the topic of what classroom teachers would like to obtain from college professors. Dr. Snyder opened his presentation with a plea for a thoughtful evaluation of the objectives of the social studies. He remarked that curriculum planners needed to ask themselves whether or not these objectives had been well thought out and whether or not their programs then met the objectives. Such objectives could be defined more clearly through a dialogue between social studies teachers and professors of social science. Social scientists, according to Dr. Snyder, had a significant role to play in the development of new social studies curricula. They could, for example, assist teachers in interpreting facts and data and determine the degree of emphasis on content, the types of course organization, the relationship between concepts, and the social science tools and skills that should be incorporated into the social studies curricula. Professional social science associations could provide key literature to secondary and elementary teachers which would aid in teacher preparation; relevant research could be communicated to schools in a clear and lucid fashion. Finally, the dialogue between teachers of the social studies and professors of the social sciences could be made more meaningful by the establishment of periodic workshops between these two groups.

FACULTY SEMINAR #7: APRIL 2, 1967

Whereas the March faculty seminar was comprised of a panel of classroom teachers dealing with problems of implementing curriculum change, the seventh seminar heard from a panel of five Maxwell School social scientists who considered the nature of "metropolitan community" and its implications for the social studies curriculum.

The first contributor, Michael O. Sawyer, Professor of Political Science and Citizenship, set forth five suggestions by which the social studies curriculum could attempt to cope with metropolitan problems. First, in order to present a more accurate picture of the metropolitan community, it was imperative that the interrelationships between federal, state, and municipal governments be emphasized, rather than the traditional distinctions between these levels of government. Second, more attention needed to be given to the administrative machinery at all levels of the civil service. Such emphasis on actual operations of bureaucracies would enable students to understand more fully the decision making process. Third, the study of "middle size institutions" such as family, church, and voluntary organizations, and their relations to the metropolitan political structure could contribute appreciably to a fuller appreciation of the urban community. Such an orientation would permit the student to look beyond the manifest concentrations of urban power (i.e., political bosses, industrialists, etc.,) to the more latent, and perhaps more significant, loci of power. Fourth, the study of metropolitan problems had to include a sophisticated treatment of human rights. In particular, social studies curriculum needed to go beyond the Fourteenth Amendment and crucial Supreme Court decisions to the vital distinction between de facto and de jure segregation. Finally, and this perhaps would pay the largest long term dividends in terms of solving some of the critical urban problems, the question of appropriate rewards for public service at the metropolitan level had to be considered. Only in this way would students develop a more positive attitude about public service as a profession.

Dr. Paul Meadows, Chairman of the Department of Sociology and Anthropology, viewed the western city as primarily an "exchange center," whose sociological dimensions were subordinate to the more important economic dimensions. The problems of the metropolis, he noted, were largely the problems of rediscovering and developing some central core institutions not only epitomizing the city, but becoming a personality expression of the city.

For the sociologist studying the city, the key question was whether he was interested in urban traits or urban variables. The sociological literature abounds with urban traits such as depersonalization, mass contacts, rapid transit, segmentation and fragmentation of human relationships. These traits have been valuable in describing the metropolitan community, but the problem of explanation can only be solved by the isolation of certain kinds of variables. Those who wish to develop urban sociological theory must be prepared to identify the variables which are responsible for the kinds of urban phenomena with which the political scientists and administrators must deal. In 1963, Dr. Meadows remarked, we do not have an urban theory. Much of our urban thinking is ideological thinking and not urban theory. The search for uniformities, moreover, has led many sociologists to overlook the tremendous variability of cities in terms of both structure and historical role.

Dr. Sidney Sufrin, Professor of Economics, contended that the various social science disciplines had relatively little to contribute to the understanding of metropolitan problems by elementary and secondary school students. The social science disciplines involve extremely sophisticated analytical devices, notions of epistomology, and notions of model building which have little relevance for the student. Rather, the city needed to be viewed in its structural and functional dimensions. Moreover, the city is characterized by two conflicting but ubiquitous elements--i.e., permanence and change.

Although there is persistence and inertia, it should not be overlooked that there is also an element of choice, and this leads to the question of urban planning. The modern city, of course, is not planned with total rationality. The rationality that does exist is a micro-rationality, a rationality of small interest groups comprised of politicians, real estate men, and others who want certain services provided for them. The city planner must recognize three basic concerns: (1) a consideration of services to be performed, (2) the ability, in light of the technology, to finance these services, and (3) aesthetic considerations.

One of the significant changes which has taken place is that the concept of the city and its satellites (the metropolitan area concept) is beginning to replace the central city concept. The result is the uncomfortable coexistence of both concepts. However, our teaching material resources are not sufficient to support both concepts. The functions of the satellite arrangement are precisely the functions which previously were performed in the central city. Thus, there exists a functional overlap.

In his address on metropolitan public finance, Dr. Jesse Birkhead, Professor of Economics, cited the city as an example of the commonplace paradox of poverty amidst plenty. Although metropolitan areas are the centers of wealth, growth and economic activity, they are also the places where government budgets seem to be the most severe, where resources for public purposes are most limited, and where tax pressures are in a continual state of crisis. Sooner or later, the problem comes down to a matter of public finance; that is, the need for additional resources at the command of metropolitan governments in order to deal with such matters as education, urban renewal, transportation, crime etc.

The solution of urban problems, moreover, has been hampered by the serious tensions, conflicts and divisions which exist between the central city and the suburbs. These conflicts, both latent and manifest have found their outward form in ethnic antagonisms, economic competition, competition for industrial location, and tax base competition. The problems of the central city in terms of government, education, resources, and revenues are, therefore, for more severe than similar problems in suburban areas in 1963. Since most state aid statutes tend to favor rural areas, drastic revisions in these statutes are needed if the cities can look realistically to state governments for assistance. Federal aid is helping in urban renewal, highway building and education, but federal aid does not attack the central problem of developing a sense of community. Indeed, both federal and state aid tend to further fragment the governmental structures and contribute to the antagonisms that already exist. What is needed, therefore, is an honest and vigorous attempt to promote some kind of a larger sense of metropolitan community.

Professor Spenser Paratt of the Political Science Department introduced his remarks on the metropolitan community by defining the city as "a political unit surrounded by smaller units which increasingly struggle together for the common motive of keeping the poor, colored, old welfare clients and sick in the declining center." He noted that there had been very few large reconcentrations of industry in metropolitan areas in the last year. Rather, new industries were locating at the junctures of interstate highways, at interchange points, and in the rural areas where they could develop the kinds of communities they preferred. As urban areas lost population, there was a decrease in the urban tax base and a corresponding increase in service costs. What was needed, then, was a spread of the tax base, bringing together the resources which were outside the city, and an abandoning of the myth of metropolitan "home rule." Moreover, Dr. Paratt concluded, it was important that there be a development of an urban political party, directly dependent upon local urban political leaders rather than state political functionaries, who tightly controlled the fate of the cities.

FACULTY SEMINAR #8: MAY 7, 1963

Dr. Jerome Bruner, Professor of Psychology at Harvard University, offered the major presentation before the eighth faculty seminar. Drawing upon his wide experience in the field of curriculum innovation, Professor Bruner set forth for consideration the following general principles of curriculum building. First, it is extremely important to give students a sense of the process of society. Second, the primary task of the social studies is not so much the mastering of the content at it is making each child his own social scientist, "capable of exercising the processes of mind that characterize activity in the social sciences." Third, there should be a rapprochement between the relatively nomothetic sociologists and the relatively idiographic historians, for it is a "magnificent luxury for them to go on hating each other in the confines of their respective faculty clubs." Fourth, in addition to equipping a person with both knowledge of his world and tools of data gathering and analysis, instruction in the social studies must aim at producing the kind of person who is "capable of humanity."

Any attempt to revise the content of the social studies curriculum, according to Dr. Bruner, had to begin with a search for those underlying propositions believed to be important in understanding the nature of society. Professor Bruner cited from his own curriculum work some examples of these "underlying propositions:"

1. A change or innovation in technology cannot affect a society until there are institutions present within the society to put it to use and to integrate it with the rest of society.

2. All societies have some degree of functional integration so that a change in one part of a society will bring about resonating changes.

3. All societies must adapt to the ecological conditions in which it is located.

These were only three of the twenty-one propositions submitted to the Ford Foundation. Dr. Bruner did not mention these propositions in hope that they would be unanimously accepted by the members of the seminar. Rather, he was fully aware that some would be objectionable to certain scholars, and indeed hoped they would be, for there should exist a high degree of pluralism in the business of curriculum innovation. Such propositions were offered as a stimulus for others to develop their own set of propositions.

Professor Bruner did not set down a specific sequence for K through 12 social studies curricula, for he believed the most important feature of sequence is that it is aimed at providing the student with an idea that society contains mutuality, that it contains institutions, and that it represents a means of coping with human reality. In very general terms, the elementary curriculum should be designed to maximize awareness of the student's environment, and from here gradually move in the direction of developing a sense of how conceptions of man change, how conceptions of nature change, and how a person moves from the idea of truth by revelation to truth by reason.

This, of course, leads to the question of appropriate teaching materials. If it is the structure and processes of society which are important in the social studies curriculum, then simply to tell the student the nature of these forms and processes is to deny a vital kind of thought development. Dr. Bruner contended that curriculum planners had to construct materials and exercises that would "maximize guesswork on the basis of partial evidence." In short, he suggested the greater use of the "inquiry method"; this being the type of activity that excites students and prevents them from becoming benchbound. In addition to written and oral exercises which encourage the testing of hypotheses, it is also possible to use this same approach employing the medium of motion pictures. When a film is shown, for example, the instructor can introduce a certain amount of competition as to predicting the outcome of a series of events.

Curriculum development, according to Professor Bruner, should be a joint enterprise of professional educators and the faculty of the arts and sciences. The business of curriculum innovation is too complex to foist off on to the faculty of education alone. The two major problems involved in curriculum innovation are: first, finding some way by which curriculum institutes can have working relationships with the school systems in which the new curricula will be tested; and second, our knowledge of how to evaluate, in a meaningful way, new curricula is indeed minimal. For these, and other, reasons, it is imperative that there be a high degree of cooperation at all levels of those directly and indirectly involved in curriculum change.

FACULTY SEMINAR #9: JUNE, 1963

By the time the last faculty seminar convened, the final details of the contract between Syracuse University and the United States Office of Education had been agreed upon for the establishment of the Social Studies Curriculum Center. Consequently, this final seminar was aimed at consolidating and re-evaluating the many ideas concerning curriculum change which had developed during the previous seminars, and to explore, however tentatively, the direction of the new curriculum center at Syracuse University. Dr. Roy Price epitomized from the preceding seminars some of the general notions upon which there was general agreement.

First, it was generally held that serious re-evaluation and revision of elementary and secondary social studies curricula was long overdue. Second, since there was no nation wide unanimity as to the purposes of the social studies, there was very little evidence as to the scope and sequence which should prevail in the schools. Third, it was generally held advisable that the aid of social scientists should be enlisted in the process of curriculum revision. Fourth, in terms of what substantive changes should be effected, most members of the seminar felt that there was a need for (a) more rigor in the social studies, (b) a more careful selection of the content, preferably on a "post-holing" or conceptual basis, and (c) and emphasis on the teaching of social science method. Fifth, social studies curricula revision is an area which is beginning to attract the attention of a great number of educators as well as social scientists. For example, the work of Educational Services, Inc., The American Council of Learned Societies, Encyclopedia Brittanica, and the six proposed social studies curriculum centers sponsored by the United States Office of Education was cited as being indicative of this trend.

Speaking as director of the new Social Studies Curriculum Center at Syracuse University, Dr. Price raised the following questions for the consideration of the seminar participants. How should the Curriculum Center proceed in identifying the basic concepts of the social studies? How should we determine the scope of our inquiry? Should we attempt to build a twelve year scope and sequence for grades one through twelve, or should we settle for the preparation of a series of resource units which will fit into the curriculum at some point yet to be determined by a process of evaluation and investigation? What methods of procedure should be followed? Should we work as a group or as individuals? Should we devise some methods by which we work as a team? How should we determine the methods of the social sciences? And what is the strategy of curriculum change? In an attempt to arrive at answers to at least some of these questions, the seminar in the ensuing discussion made the following observations:

First, with the exception of some experimental projects, it is unrealistic to expect that a totally new curriculum will be accepted by most school systems. Consequently, an evolutionary rather than a revolutionary approach to curriculum innovation is needed. That is, curriculum change must begin with the existing structures, and new ideas, concepts, values and methods can be grafted upon these structures. It must be understood, however, that there is no one existing structure, but rather a wide variety of curricula across the nation.

Second, as a general sequential principle, it was suggested that any new social studies curriculum should work from the known to the unknown. Mass communication media, however, has made it very difficult to determine, with any degree of accuracy, what is known and what is not known to youngsters by the time they start school.

Third, the element of conflict in human life should be treated more realistically than in the past. Although the student faces conflict long before he gets to school, he does not begin to develop a conceptualization of how to resolve conflict without violence and indignity to the contestants until he enters the school situation. In addition to the resolution of conflict, it was held that both the function and the ubiquity of conflict be introduced into the curriculum.

Fourth, a distinction was made between the perceptual area of concepts and the motivational area of values. The validity of such a distinction, however, was questioned by certain members of the seminar who felt that social science concepts and values are not necessarily mutually exclusive. For a thorough review of this topic, see the proceedings of the Sagamore Conference on *Needed Research in the Teaching of the Social Studies*, October, 1963.

Fifth, it was suggested that social studies curriculum change should not simply involve the introduction of the various social science disciplines *per se* into the elementary and secondary levels. The new Social Studies Curriculum Center should not try to teach economics qua economics, geography qua geography, or political science qua political science at the pre-college level. Rather, the task should be to integrate some of the social science concepts and methods into the meaningful aspects of daily life.

Sixth, it was felt that if the new curriculum center was to make progress, it would be necessary for the members to meet periodically in the form of faculty seminars rather than working as individuals.

CHAPTER II

PROPOSAL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM CENTER

During the course of the faculty seminars--and in large part because of the enthusiasm of its participants--the Maxwell School in cooperation with the School of Education at Syracuse University submitted to the United States Office of Education (under provisions of Public Law 531 of the 83rd Congress) a proposal for a Social Studies Curriculum Center. The proposal, initiated by Dr. Roy A. Price, Dual Professor of Social Science and Education, was entitled "Application for a Social Studies Curriculum Center Devoted to the Identification of Major Concepts from the Social Sciences. Development of Materials and Techniques for Teaching These Concepts, and Evaluation of Their Applicability and Utility at Three Selected Grade Levels, V, VIII, and XI." The proposal was submitted originally on January 14, 1963, was revised, and was subsequently resubmitted on April 1, 1963. By the time the last faculty seminar convened on June 3, 1963, the final contract negotiations had been concluded. Both the original proposal and the appended revisions follow:

SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM STUDY CENTER APPLICATION SUBMITTED TO THE COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION, UNDER THE PROVISIONS OF PUBLIC LAW 531, 83d CONGRESS

Introduction

This is an application for a social studies curriculum center under the provisions of Public Law 531, 83d Congress. Basically, it is hoped that the contributions of this center, if established, would be (1) the identification of a list of significant basic concepts which are or ought to be communicated through the social studies curriculum. These concepts would be drawn from existing literature and the cooperative efforts of social scientists on the faculty of the Maxwell Graduate School of Citizenship and Public Affairs, working as a team and drawing from within social science disciplines or, as generalists, looking beyond discipline boundaries to select those concepts significantly related to societal problems. (2) The second major contribution would result from selection, development and evaluation of instructional materials and procedures for teaching these concepts, to the end that evidence could be presented as to the learnability of the basic concepts at three selected grade levels, V, VIII, and XI.

It is hoped that through similar study in other centers and through continuation of this study beyond the five year period of the curriculum study grant evidence may be collected upon which to build an articulated sequence for the twelve years of elementary and secondary instruction to replace the fragmented pattern now in practice. Only through the efforts of social scientists working not to represent their specific disciplines, but drawing upon their knowledge within and across disciplinary lines can we begin to build a curriculum as the teaching and learning of structure rather than simply the mastery of facts and techniques, and produce a curriculum which will overcome the lag between what we teach and what we know as a result of recent social science research.

A third aspect of the work of the curriculum center is highlighted in the following quotation from Dr. Pendelton Herring, President of the Social Science Research Council, taken from his presidential report, 1961-62:

> .....we face the need to examine the social sciences within the context of the secondary schools.
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> .....Aspects of the social sciences are being offered in many courses and at many levels. The task of improvement calls for prolonged effort and raises questions that are, I think, particularly difficult for the social disciplines. These fields at their present stage of development are characterized most distinctively by efforts in refinement of conceptualization, in elaboration of theory, or attempts at precision of statement. Can such tendencies toward specialization and sophistication be reversed without real distortion in an effort to simplify? If the social studies are to be suitable fare for high school students, the complexities of reality cannot be turned into elementary homilies or indoctrination offered in relativism, positivism, or any other "ism." Yet is this not a danger when materials, for example, on race relations or the family, are reduced to very elementary terms? What the student may then actually imbibe is the thin gruel of overly simplified description or the treacle of hortatory doctrine. It is easier, however, to elaborate cautions than to devise a curriculum feasible for the teacher and meaningful for secondary school students.

> The demand that something be done is further evidence that the social sciences are of widening concern. It seems imperative that improved instruction provide beginning students with a clearer conception of how the study of society can be approached in a scientific spirit, objectively and empirically.

This aspect of the work of the proposed curriculum center would concentrate upon the purpose stated in the concluding sentence of the components of method appropriate to the teaching of the social studies in the elementary and secondary schools. The concern would not be to introduce methodology into the elementary and secondary schools as the methods of the sociologist, the historian, the economist or the political scientist. Rather, it would be to select, try out and evaluate those aspects of method which are relevant to the role of the citizen as citizen.

The work of the proposed curriculum center would be conducted by a team of faculty members from the Maxwell School and from the School of Education and cooperating social studies teachers and supervisors who have already engaged during the current year in a faculty seminar designed to improve the teaching of the social studies.

In 1961 the New York State Education Department published a report, Organizing New York State for Educational Change, written by Henry M. Brickell, Consultant to the Commissioner of Education on Educational Experimentation. In a foreword to this report Commissioner James Allen wrote, "The plan would allocate definite responsibility for educational research and development between state and local government and among the various organizations which shape elementary and secondary school programs.....These projects would be located in the schools and colleges staffed by school and college personnel." The Brickell report produced recommendations for statewide action to achieve the following purposes: (1) evaluating new practices and devices; (2) initiating and expanding constructive experimentation in the schools; and (3) facilitating and accelerating widespread use of practices and devices which have been proved or may be proved successful in the schools of New York State and elsewhere."

The proposed curriculum center has been discussed with Commissioner Allen and others in the State Education Department and it has been agreed that such a center, being consistent with plans for improving education would work cooperatively with the Department, drawing upon the services of the supervisory staff, the Curriculum Bureau and the Examinations and Testing Division. This cooperative arrangement would add substantially to the resources of the center in obtaining reactions to basic concepts and instructional materials, in planning research design for evaluation and in constructing and analyzing test items.

I. The Problem

a. The Academic Lag

Although social science research has made a significant contribution to the study of human behavior and vast areas of new knowledge have been opened up in recent years, there has been no comprehensive revision of the social studies curriculum since that following the report of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education in 1916.

It seems evident that such curriculum development will inevitably require the cooperative efforts of scholars from the social science disciplines, educators from the field of educational psychology, elementary and secondary curriculum, and social and cultural foundations of education and the most able practitioners from elementary and secondary schools.

A recent publication[1] of the National Council for the Social Studies highlights the lag between what we know and what we teach in the social sciences. Successive chapters in this volume summarize new viewpoints in each of the social science disciplines. The chapter dealing with history, written by George Barr Carson, Jr., cites the trend toward IBM historians working with computors, the vogue for social history, the great need for study of Far Eastern history, and the present emphasis upon current history. Preston James suggests geography in which the physical features of the earth must be interpreted in terms of the prevailing culture, a direct opposite to environmental determinism. The chapter in political science lists formalized study of public administration, increased emphasis upon international relations and the study of political behavior as among the new viewpoints emerging in that discipline. Many other illustrations of new viewpoints and newly discovered bodies of knowledge are cited in these and related disciplines of sociology, economics, anthropology and social psychology.

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[1] Price, Roy A. (ed) New Viewpoints in the Social Sciences, Twenty Eighth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies, Washington, D.C., 1958.

These chapters also reveal the inter-relatedness of the disciplines as they center around common areas such as study of cultures, large scale complex organizations, and leadership patterns. Shared interest also emerges as the political behaviorist may borrow useful concepts from psychologists and sociologists. Similarly, historians, anthropologists, sociologists, and even economists, indicate an interest in the development of values.

The academic lag in knowledge of social science is accentuated in the field of values which is complicated by lack of a clearly defined and agreed upon value structure, and also by conflict between the values which students are taught in schools and those which they observe in practice in home, school and community. If we are to achieve our basic purposes we must maximize people's participation in clarification of their values and increase their capacity to appraise institutions for implementing these values.

Finally, the curriculum reflects a general disregard for such social science methodology as subordination of subjective preference to objective evidence, readiness to pursue empirical data and to discard unwarranted assumptions, and awareness of the difference between solid evidence and simply informed judgments.

b. Needed Efforts in the Social Sciences

In the decades ahead American education must face vastly expanded knowledge, improved research techniques, new methods of communication, an ever increasing rate of technological change, a shifting American value structure, and the anticipated influx into our educational institutions. These changes call for a re-examination of the objectives of our schools and of the extent to which our curricula, instructional practices, and materials are achieving these objectives.

One of the major approaches to curriculum revision in the social studies is suggested by Bruner as "the teaching and learning of structure rather than simply the mastery of facts and techniques."[2] This type of learning calls for identification of the concepts or major ideas which emerge from the several social science disciplines and which can be used for recognition and organization of subsequent ideas.

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[2] Bruner, Jerome S., The Process of Education, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, 1960.

As Bruner points out, "Mastery of the fundamental ideas of a field involves not only the grasping of general principles, but also the development of an attitude toward learning and inquiry, toward guessing and hunches, toward the possibility of solving problems on one's own. In the social sciences this calls for examination of the methodologies of the respective disciplines for identification of elements of methodology applicable to learning in elementary and secondary schools."

c. A Faculty Seminar as Preparation For the Work of the Proposed Curriculum Center

Members of the faculty and administration at Syracuse University have demonstrated an interest in the teaching of the social studies over an extended period of time. As early as 1945, the Maxwell School developed and published through the National Council for the Social Studies a series of resource units entitled The Structure of Local Government, Parties and Politics in the Local Community, and Community Planning. Workshops for teachers have been held in Curriculum Development, Intercultural Education, Economic Education and The Newspaper in the Classroom. The annual Citizenship Education Conference has been held for the past seventeen years involving cooperation of more than two hundred fifty secondary schools throughout New York State. Members of the faculty of the Maxwell School and of the School of Education have been actively engaged as authors, lecturers and curriculum consultants in this field.

During the current academic year, a faculty seminar has been in progress centered around the teaching of the social studies in elementary and secondary schools and reflecting the tradition of interdepartmental cooperation which has characterized programs of the Maxwell Graduate School of Citizenship and Public Affairs and the cooperative relationships which have existed between the Maxwell School and the School of Education. This seminar involves participation of twelve members of the social science departments, five faculty members from the School of Education, three classroom teachers who are also department heads in their respective schools, the supervisor of social studies instruction in the Syracuse public schools, and the supervisor of social studies in the New York State Department of Education.

This faculty seminar meets monthly. Currently one session is devoted to consideration of the contribution of each of the academic disciplines which are represented by outstanding off campus scholars such as Dr. Paul Ward, President of Sarah Lawrence College (History), Dean Floyd Bond, University of Michigan (Economics) and Professor Neal Gross, Harvard University (Sociology). In addition to the contribution of the disciplines, topics scheduled for seminar discussion are:

The Contribution of International Studies to the Curriculum
The Citizen in the Community -- Implications for Education
Models for the Future in Social Studies Education
The Education of Teachers

This seminar has served to acquaint members of the faculty with the need for curriculum revision, has built a closer relationship among members of the social science departments and members of the faculty of the School of Education, and has established the basis for cooperative working relationships with the public schools represented.

II. Objectives

The objectives of the proposed curriculum center are:

a. To identify major concepts selected from the social sciences as related to social studies instruction in the elementary and secondary schools. The curriculum center will draw upon the talents of members of the Maxwell faculty for identification of major concepts. We do not propose that these concepts should be drawn exclusively from the social science disciplines, nor do we suggest the preparation of courses organized around particular disciplines. Essentially we hope to bring together scholars from the social sciences to assist as generalists in identifying a series of concepts essential to achievement of social studies objectives.

b. To identify the major workways of the social scientists which are relevant to social studies teaching in elementary and secondary schools, such as organizing principles, readiness to pursue empirical data, willingness to discard unwarranted assumptions, awareness of the difference between solid evidence and simply informed opinion and subordination of subjective preference to objective evidence.

c. To develop materials organized around the basic concepts identified for use by teachers and students which effectively translate the above (objectives a. and b.) outcomes into classroom practice. The period of five years available under a curriculum center grant would not permit development of materials at all grade levels. Rather, we would plan to experiment with the development of instructional techniques and materials at three selected grade levels, grades V, VIII, and XI. Essentially, this phase of the study would be devoted to research concerning the learnability of these concepts at different grade levels.

III. Background

No major comprehensive revision of the social studies curriculum has taken place since that following the report of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education in 1916. There have been studies such as that sponsored by the American Historical Association during the thirties and volumes and yearbooks of the National Council for the Social Studies, the American Association of School Administrators, the Progressive Education Association and the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

In more recent years the National Council for the Social Studies has published two yearbooks, New Viewpoints in the Social Sciences[3] and New Viewpoints in Geography,[4] and a bulletin, A Guide to Content in the Social Studies,[5] which related directly to overcoming the lag between what we know and what we teach.

The National Council for the Social Studies has also cooperated with the American Council of Learned Societies in a project which resulted in the publication during the past year of The Social Studies and the Social Sciences.[6] In this volume nine eminent scholars each wrote with somewhat uneven quality about the teaching of a major academic discipline or about a significant geographic area.

Promising activities are currently under way on several fronts. One of these is the Curriculum Development Program in the Humanities and the Social Sciences under the joint sponsorship of the American Council of Learned Societies and Educational Services, Incorporated. A conference held at Dedham, Massachusetts in June 1962 initiated an attempt to identify basic concepts and to translate these into teaching materials. Teams are now at work developing sequences based upon identification of a framework of concepts.

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[3] Price, Roy A., op. cit.

[4] James, Preston E., New Viewpoints in Geography, Twenty Ninth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies, Washington, D.C., 1959.

[5] A Guide to Content in the Social Studies, Report of the NCSS Committees on Concepts and Values, Washington, D.C.

[6] The Social Studies and the Social Sciences. (Sponsored by the American Council of Learned Societies and the NCSS) New York, 1962.

The Joint Council on Economic Education has had an extensive program under way for several years and recently cooperated with the Committee for Economic Development in publication of the report of a task force composed of economists and educators who attempted to identify the basic economic concepts and methods to be taught in elementary and secondary schools. A series of casebooks applicable to secondary education has been published by the Council for the Advancement of Secondary Education, and Professor Lawrence Senesh of Purdue University is developing a program in economics with primary focus on the elementary grades and based upon the hypothesis that economic concepts can be effectively taught in the primary and intermediate grades.

In geography, The Association of American Geographers and the National Council for Geographic Education have sponsored a project to develop a one-year geography course for the secondary school. Ten experimental centers have been established for the development of materials for this course. The National Council for Geographic Education is supporting an effort to develop a geography curriculum for grades K through 12.

Professor Neal Gross is chairman of a Committee on Social Studies Curriculum in the Secondary Schools created by the American Sociological Association to examine curriculum content in the social studies and to assist in developing new materials and sequences in sociology and in the behavioral sciences.

Professor Malcolm Collier of the University of Chicago currently directs a project to study the use of anthropological materials in the schools and to prepare new materials and bibliographies.

Professor Stavrianos at Northwestern University has been at work for some time on the development of a world history course built upon a variation of the area-study approach and has developed and tried out materials in pilot schools. President Paul Ward of Sarah Lawrence College has been at work for several years on a project involving application of historical method to the secondary school curriculum. Roswenc and Van Halsey at Amherst have been editing readings and units for secondary school teaching of American history.

Mention should also be made of a project in Glens Falls, New York, to assist in the development of a curriculum extending to all grade levels, designed to improve the teaching of world affairs and to produce materials on the teaching of international relations.

While the projects identified above (and others not included) are promising, most are being developed by separate teams of scholars, representing the separate disciplines. It would appear that the results would of necessity be somewhat fragmentary. Most of the studies referred to are in initial stages of development, and no one can predict the nature of results or even, in some cases, the approach to be undertaken. Members of the staff of the proposed curriculum center would follow these projects and draw upon their results wherever their findings contributed to our project. It seems apparent that a variety of approaches in research and development will be required before we can provide answers to the questions of what values, knowledge and skills are to be taught, how content should be selected and organized, and which grade levels are most appropriate for the introduction of basic concepts and skills.

IV. Procedure

a. Identification of Basic Concepts

The initial step of the proposed curriculum center would be to build a list of major concepts which are or ought to be communicated through the social studies curriculum. At the present time there is no assurance that the most significant concepts are being taught, selection often being left to the judgment of textbook authors, publishing houses, curriculum committees and individual classroom teachers who may lack the necessary scholarship. This phase of the study will draw heavily upon the competencies of members of the Maxwell faculty. Scholars will be drawn from the established social science disciplines, but will serve in this capacity as generalists in identifying those concepts from within the disciplines or from across disciplinary lines which are considered essential to the understanding of significant and persistent problems of our society. It is clear that in this capacity, social scientists should focus upon problems and needs of the society, not upon problems of the disciplines.

It is difficult to anticipate at this stage what these major concepts would be. One illustration, however, might be that in the United States we have resolved the succession to public office without violence. Whereas in many other cultures succession may involve revolution, civil war, or intense political rivalries, in the United States we have devised procedures which provide for the orderly succession from one incumbent to another. Or, to use a second illustration from the field of political behavior, in view of the fact that for the foreseeable future human relations may involve conflict situations, it might be desirable to introduce students to the study of those institutions in our society which exist for the resolution of conflict, such as courts and judicial procedures, political parties and the political process, legislative procedures and even the United Nations. From sociology we might draw the generalization that an individual's behavior is conditioned by the process of socialization, the experiences and biases of his own environment. Similarly, the curriculum might be updated by providing for developing understanding of administrative agencies, sovereignty, legal and political rights, balance of power, the decline of traditional societal sanctions and contemporary substitutes, and the new federalism.

In addition we would attempt to identify the major ways of thinking and working which characterize the social sciences. These skills (II,b.,pp.10-11) should be mastered with appropriate levels of proficiency during varied stages of pupil development.

b. Review of List of Basic Concepts

Having identified a list of basic concepts through the utilization of the knowledge of social science specialists, through canvass of related research studies, and through examination of existing courses of study which we have recently collected in connection with the faculty seminar, the list of basic concepts would be submitted to selected classroom teachers, to the Curriculum Bureau and to the social studies supervisory staff of the New York State Department of Education, for their suggestions and criticisms.

c. Preparation of Teaching Materials

The present social studies curriculum lacks vertical articulation in the form of discernable, orderly, sequential progression of ideas and skills from grade to grade. Research has provided little evidence of the appropriate grade placement of concepts, skills and methods of procedure. As the major concepts and workways referred to above are identified, it will be desirable to prepare materials to test and evaluate their usability and effectiveness at various grade levels.

The final list of concepts agreed upon would provide the basis for step three in the process, namely preparation of teaching materials for experimentation in cooperating schools at the grade levels indicated. These schools would fall into three categories. The first group includes schools which have agreed to serve as cooperating schools throughout the progress of the study and from which teachers are already participating in the faculty seminar during the current year. These schools are:

Jamesville-DeWitt Central School, DeWitt, New York
Geneva Public Schools, Geneva, New York
The Milne School, State University of New York, Albany, New York
Cazenovia Central School, Cazenovia, New York
Syracuse Public Schools, Syracuse, New York

In addition to these cooperating schools, Syracuse University has close working relationships with sixty-six school systems participating in the work of the Central New York School Study Council and two hundred fifty school systems who cooperate annually in the Citizenship Education Conference. Finally, Dr. James Allen, Commissioner of Education in New York State, has assured us of the cooperation of that department in enlisting cooperation of school systems and in approving experimental courses developed through the curriculum center.

Basically, this step in the project would involve preparation of teaching materials for pupil consumption, teachers' guides, bibliographies, and audio-visual teaching aids prepared in cooperation with the Audio-Visual Center, Syracuse University.

d. Evaluation and Tryout

The fourth step in the work of the center would involve tryout and evaluation of the usability and effectiveness of the materials developed in step three at three different grade levels (V,VIII,XI) and with students of different levels of ability.

In preparation for this tryout a summer work conference would be held involving teachers who would actually be engaged in teaching the materials. The purposes of the conference would be to assure teachers' knowledge of the social science materials involved and acquaintance with the purposes and techniques of the study.

This stage of the study would involve careful research to determine: (1) grade placement of basic concepts; at what grade levels, and to what ability levels basic generalizations and work-ways can be taught effectively. This aspect of the study should provide at least a beginning on the difficult problem of grade placement about which much is written but little is known as the result of research evidence, and (2) significance of related factors of teacher effectiveness having to do with cultural backgrounds, motivation, methodology, and types of materials.

This phase of the study must be limited because of its comprehensiveness to three grade levels. Grades V, VIII and XI have been selected.

The success of this stage will depend upon carefully prepared research design and utilization of appropriate evaluation instruments. Adequate attention must be devoted to problems of sampling to assure representativeness. Pre-tests and post-tests will be used wherever possible to measure the extent to which curriculum materials developed are effective in contributing to desired objectives. Testing instruments employed will include existing instruments such as Sequential Tests of Education Progress (STEP) and others for comparative purposes, although it is assumed that it will be necessary to construct some new tests more directly related to the specific objectives of instruction. In this connection techniques will include measures of validity and reliability for tests, analysis of variance and covariance where appropriate, and other measures of analysis.

To achieve effective evaluation techniques we have been assured of the participation of Dr. Eric Gardner, Chairman of the Department of Psychology, as consultant on problems of research design and test construction and analysis. Associated with Dr. Gardner in this work will be Dr. David Payne of the faculty of the School of Education.

In this phase of the study the cooperation of the Research Bureau and the Examination and Testing Division of the New York State Department of Education will be particularly helpful in research design and in test construction and analysis.

c. Reporting

The final stage of the project would consist of analyzing and organizing the findings of the studies and reporting to the United States Office of Education and to the profession. The results of these studies would be published for dissemination through a newsletter which would be distributed periodically among secondary schools, teacher training institutions, and other interested individuals and organizations. Publication of materials developed through the National Council for the Social Studies has been tentatively approved with the Executive Secretary, Mr. Merrill Hartshorn.

Within New York State important channels for dissemination would include the Central New York School Study Council centered at Syracuse University, the New York State Council for the Social Studies, the New York State Council for Economic Education, and the facilities of the New York State Department of Education.

V. Time Schedule

First Year of Curriculum Center, June 1963 - June 1964

a. Canvass of courses of study in selected school systems nationally. Collection of these materials is already well underway in connection with faculty seminar.

b. Continued and expanded exploration of related research literature and of reports on studies currently in progress.

c. Examination and review of textbook, periodical, audio-visual materials and other aids to instruction for pupil consumption.

d. Major emphasis during this period on building, with the assistance of social science scholars, a list of significant basic concepts appropriate to the achievement of social studies objectives.

Second Year of Curriculum Center, June 1964 - June 1965

a. Continuation of identification of significant basic concepts.

b. Submission of list of basic concepts to cooperating teachers and to Curriculum Bureau and Social Studies Supervisory Staff, New York State Education Department for review and suggestions.

c. Continued search for effective teaching materials related to basic concepts.

Third Year of Curriculum Center, June 1965 - June 1966

a. Selection of appropriate teaching materials.

b. Preparation of materials for pupil consumption, study guides, and audio-visual aids in those areas where existing materials are not adequate.

c. Work conference for cooperating teachers for acquaintance with objectives of the study and knowledge of the social science content areas supporting the basic concepts.

d. Selection of existing evaluation instruments and preparation of new tests where needed.

e. Pilot tryout of materials and instruments prepared to this point.

Fourth Year of Curriculum Center, June 1966 - June 1967

a. Continue preparation of materials.

b. Continue preparation of testing instruments.

c. Major emphasis upon extensive use and evaluation of concepts and teaching materials within cooperating schools.

Fifth Year of Curriculum Center, June 1967 - June 1968

a. Summer work conference for revision of materials in light of feedback from cooperating schools.

b. Further intensive use of materials and evaluation.

c. Analysis and interpretation of results.

d. Reporting.

V. Personnel

All of the individuals listed below have been participating in the faculty seminar during the current year and have agreed to continue with the work of the curriculum center:

Project Director

Roy A. Price, Professor of Social Science and Education; Past President of the National Council for the Social Studies; author; Executive Secretary, New York State Council on Economic Education

Assistant Project Director

(To be identified)

Cooperating Personnel

Marie Cady, Supervisor of Social Studies, Syracuse Board of Education; Chairman, Legislative Committee, N.Y., A.S.C.D.; Board of Directors, United Nations Association; Trustee, Canal Museum

Verna Fancett, Chairman of Social Studies, Jamesville-DeWitt High School

M. L. Frankel, Director, Joint Council on Economic Education; former Chairman, High School Social Studies Department, East Orange, N.J.; presently Eisenhower Exchange Foundation Fellow focused on economic education in several European countries

Helen Maney, Chairman of Social Studies, Geneva High School; Past President, New York State Teachers Association; Chairman, Educational Policies Commission; Board of Directors, New York State Council on Economic Education

Mildred McChesney, Supervisor of Social Studies, New York State Education Department; John Hay Fellow; Board of Directors, New York State Council on Economic Education

Elizabeth Robinson, Chairman of Social Studies, Cazenovia Central School; Chairman, Classroom Teachers Council, New York State Education Association; John Hay Fellow; Board of Directors, New York State Teachers Association

Gerald W. Snyder, Chairman of Social Studies Department, The Milne School, State University of New York at Albany; Past President of the New York Council for the Social Studies

University Personnel

Stephen K. Bailey, Dean, Maxwell Graduate School of Citizenship and Public Affairs; Professor of Political Science; author; former Mayor of Middletown, Conn.

Nelson M. Blake, Professor of History; author of books on American social, cultural and diplomatic history

Stuart Gerry Brown, Maxwell Professor of American Civilization; author of textbooks in American government and books on politics, intellectual history and philosophy

Hobert W. Burns, Associate Professor of Education; Editor of Prentice Hall Series on Social Foundations of Education; Consultant on Latin American affairs to the U.S. Government

Thomas E. Clayton, Associate Professor of Education; Director, Inter-University Project I (Teacher Preparation); Chairman of Teacher Preparation Committee, School of Education

Robert J. Cooke, Dual Instructor of Social Science and Education; Chairman, Research Committee of the National Council for the Social Studies; former staff member of Citizenship Education Project at Columbia University

George Cressey, Maxwell Professor of Geography; Past President, International Geographical Union; author of ten textbooks in geography; extensive travel in non-Western countries

Melvin A. Eggers, Chairman, Department of Economics; Consultant to Director, New York State Council on Economic Education

Eric F. Gardner, Chairman, Psychology Department; Examiner for the Scholastic Achievement Test; co-author of the Stanford Achievement Test

Paul Halverson, Professor of Education; Consultant and author secondary curriculum; former secondary school teacher and principal; editor, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development Yearbook, Balance in the Curriculum

Donn V. Hart, Associate Professor of Anthropology and Social Science; Director, Asian Studies Program; Consultant to Peace Corps (Southeast Asia)

C. W. Hunnicutt, Professor of Education; senior author, L. W. Singer series in social studies for the elementary grades; Consultant to University of the Philippines; editor, Social Studies for the Middle Grades, for the National Council for the Social Studies

Preston E. James, Chairman, Department of Geography; author of textbooks in geography; numerous offices in professional geographic organizations; Joint Committee, A.A.G.-N.C.G.E. High School Project

Paul Meadows, Chairman, Department of Sociology and Anthropology; author; Past President and Editor of Midwest Sociologist; numerous professional organization offices

Spencer Parratt, Professor of Political Science; specialist in cross discipline studies; numerous community affiliations (urban renewal, schools, politics, prison reform)

David Payne, Assistant Professor, educational measurement, evaluation and statistics; author; former research associate and instructor, Bureau of Educational Research, Michigan State University

Sidney C. Sufrin, Professor of Economics; author, Administering the N.D.E.A., Some Aspects of Federal Aid to Education (Carnegie Foundation Grant), and articles on economics and education

Virgil M. Rogers, Dean, School of Education; Board of Directors, N.E.A.; Consultant to U.S. Government for International and Comparative Education (A.I.D., Peace Corps, Army)

Michael O. Sawyer, Associate Professor of Citizenship and Political Science; Director of the Citizenship Program; Area Chairman, New York State Commission for Human Rights; Member, Mayor's Commission for Youth, Syracuse, New York

VII. Facilities

The facilities of Syracuse University which justify placement of this center here are five:

1. There is a long tradition of interdepartmental cooperation among the departments of the social sciences in the Maxwell School.

2. Syracuse University is almost unique among institutions of higher learning in its long established degree of cooperation between the All-University School of Education and the Maxwell School. Since 1935 there has been the dual professorship employed equally by the two schools and holding rank in both.

3. There is a long history of cordial cooperation in research and training programs between the University and both elementary and secondary schools of New York.

4. The New York State Education Department, through its social studies supervisory staff, the Research Bureau and the Examination and Testing Division, provides a valuable resource for consultation and assistance in research design, test construction and analysis of findings. We have been assured by Commissioner James Allen of the cooperation of members of the staff of this department.

5. The faculty seminar in progress during the present academic year has provided personnel of the Maxwell faculty, the School of Education, and the cooperating schools, a long head start in understanding of the present curriculum, studies already in progress, and the need for concentrated effort to produce more effective curriculum practices.

VIII. Duration

Total amount of time required: 5 years

Beginning date: May 1, 1963 Ending date: June 30, 1968

IX. Other Information

a. The present faculty seminar is supported in the amount of $10,000 contributed by the Danforth Foundation and the Standard Oil Company Foundation.

b. This proposal has not been submitted elsewhere.

c. This is a new proposal, not an extension or addition to a previous project.

d. This is a revision of a proposal submitted January 29, 1963.

e. No other Cooperative Research Projects in progress.

STATEMENT OF CHANGES IN CURRICULUM CENTER APPLICATION

ORIGINAL SUBMITTED JANUARY 14, 1963;
REVISION SUBMITTED April 1, 1963.

In compliance with the request of your letter of March 15, we submit the following description of changes in the application for a proposal for a curriculum center. These changes result from suggestions transmitted from the discussion of the Advisory Council as follows:

Suggestion 1. That the scope of the project, while important, is too broad to be encompassed with the resources and within the time limits provided under a curriculum center grant.

Change Made in Revised Application
Selection and production of study guides and teaching materials for student consumption and tryout and evaluation of these materials will be limited to three grade levels, V, VIII, and XI.

Suggestion 2. It would be desirable to involve people from outside Syracuse in a venture of this magnitude.

It should be pointed out that people from outside Syracuse were involved in the original proposal as follows:

Dr. Franklyn Barry, Superintendent of Schools, North Syracuse, N. Y.
Mrs. Marie Cady, Supervisor for the Social Studies, Syracuse Board of Education
Mrs. Verna S. Fancett, Chairman of Social Studies Department, Jamesville-DeWitt High School
Dr. M. L. Frankel, Director, Joint Council on Economic Education
Dr. Helen Maney, Chairman of Social Studies Department, Geneva High School
Miss Mildred McChesney, The State Education Department at Albany, N.Y.
Miss Elizabeth Robinson, Chairman of Social Studies Department, Cazenovia Central School
Dr. Gerald W. Snyder, The Milne School, State University of New York at Albany, N. Y.

Change Made in Revised Application
In addition we have established a cooperative arrangement with the New York State Education Department involving participation of the supervisory social studies staff, the Curriculum Bureau and the Research Division. These services will be helpful in reviewing lists of basic concepts and tryout materials, in problems of research design, and in test construction and data analysis.

Suggestion 3. More specific description of evaluation aspects of the study should be included.

Change Made in Revised Application
Dr. Eric Gardner and Dr. David Payne of the Syracuse faculty have agreed to serve as consultants on research design and test construction and analysis.

The revised proposal also contains somewhat more specific descriptions of evaluation procedures and statistical treatment (see pp. 19-20).

The facilities of the New York State Department of Education will be employed as indicated above.

Suggestion 4. Identify more clearly what contribution the proposed center would make.

Change Made in Revised Application
This suggestion has been followed in an introductory section which enumerates the potential contributions as (1) preparation with the assistance of social science scholars of a list of significant basic concepts, (2) evidence as to the learnability of these concepts at three specific grade levels and by students of different abilities at these grade levels, and (3) teaching materials and tests prepared in connection with the use of the concepts in cooperating schools.

Suggestion 5. Indicate more clearly channels for dissemination of results.

Change Made in Revised Application
The original proposal suggested dissemination through a newsletter and through the publication program of the National Council for the Social Studies as discussed with the Executive Secretary, Mr. Merrill Hartshorn. In addition we have available the facilities of the Central New York School Study Council, the New York State Council for the Social Studies, the New York State Council on Economic Education, and the New York State Department of Education.

Further elaboration of these changes will be found throughout the revised proposal.

It should be noted that while this proposed center would operate within New York State and with personnel now employed in New York State, the preliminary curriculum survey would include a national sample of courses of study and the list of basic concepts, teaching materials and tests would have usefulness in communities throughout the country.

CHAPTER III

THE SAGAMORE CONFERENCE

In the early part of the present decade, numerous efforts were being made to re-evaluate and revise the teaching of the social studies. In 1962 the American Council of Learned Societies published a volume including chapters on the contributions of several disciplines to the social studies program. A number of scholarly associations including the American Anthropological Association, the American Sociological Association, the American Economic Association, the American Historical Association and a group representing the several associations of geographers established committees, commissions or projects on the teaching of the social studies. There were also a number of projects such as those in St. Louis, Missouri and Newton, Massachusetts which were either privately or foundation financed. In addition, curriculum revision was being undertaken in many school systems throughout the country. While many of these activities were well conceived and promised to contribute to our knowledge of effective practices, much of what was being done was without sufficient background in research findings. It was, therefore, generally conceded that there was a pressing need to pull together the findings of relevant research which had already been completed, to identify those areas where additional research was needed, and to stimulate research in those areas.

In recognition of this need, the Maxwell School of Citizenship and Public Affairs and the School of Education at Syracuse University were invited to sponsor a conference on Needed Research in the Teaching of the Social Studies under the auspices of the Cooperative Research Branch of the United States Office of Education. This conference was held October 3-5, 1963, at the Sagamore Conference Center, a continuing educational facility of Syracuse University located in the Adirondack Mountains. The proceedings of this conference were reported in Needed Research in the Teaching of the Social Studies, published in 1964 as Bulletin Number One of the National Council for the Social Studies.

Part I, Conference Highlights, is intended to provide an overview of the conference by concentrating on the central issues of the conference. Part II is composed of the six formal papers presented at the conference, each of which is followed by a brief discussion summary. Part III, on research design, presents papers which developed out of the conference on the problems of research design in the field.

It is suggested that readers obtain a copy of Needed Research in the Teaching of the Social Sciences to be read at this point. This will best indicate the factors which were involved in the later development of value concepts and other trends of research in the Social Studies Curriculum Center.

CHAPTER IV

THE POSITION PAPERS

The faculty seminars of 1962-1963 had been planned to explore which concepts should be included in social studies courses and to reach consensus among the representatives of the social science disciplines. The participants developed a conviction that the major task they faced was to increase understanding by analyzing the structure of the disciplines and by presenting the "basic ideas" of their respective disciplines in "position papers." One of the first steps of the newly created Social Studies Curriculum Center was to arrange for scholars to prepare these papers.

THE TASK

The purpose of the position papers was clearly stated: to identify the major concepts in the disciplines. Each writer was reminded, though, that he was to identify these concepts without regard to their appropriateness for the social studies curriculum or the possibility of overlap into another discipline. It was understood that the Curriculum Center would extract major concepts from these papers. In addition to the traditional social sciences, papers were sought from the related fields of law, psychiatry, and philosophy.

The selection of writers was based on two criteria: scholarship and interest in the Center's purposes. A third criterion was that the writers should have attended the seminars, but this could not always be met. For example, as no one had represented the field of law at the seminars, the Dean of the Syracuse College of Law was asked for a recommendation. In another instance, the Curriculum Center Staff asked Melvin Tumin, of Princeton, to write a paper, though he had attended only the Sagamore Conference.

The tasks of writing and assessing these papers were not easy, for some disciplines lend themselves to a conceptual approach more easily than others and writers differed with regard to what was expected of them. Some writers extended themselves beyond what could have been reasonably expected, and, unfortunately, one person chosen to represent a discipline failed to complete his task. Thus, the position papers not only varied in intent and content, but do not represent all the disciplines.

It is quite evident from reading the papers that the Curriculum Center Staff faced an extremely difficult task in "mining" from these papers, numbering more than 500 pages, only a few of the many concepts identified. There was no question that the Staff would have to select from scores of concepts that deserved treatment.

TITLES AND AUTHORS

A total of twelve position papers was written. The titles and the authors are as follows:

A Contribution from Medicine -- Robert W. Daly, M.D., Psychiatry Department, New York Upstate Medical Center.

The State of the Social Sciences -- T. C. Denise, Chairman, Department of Philosophy, Syracuse University.

Main Themes in Economics -- Melvin Eggers, Chairman, Department of Economics, Syracuse University.

The Role of Methodology in Social Studies Education -- Linton Freeman, Professor of Sociology and Anthropology, Syracuse University.

The Teaching of Historical Concepts -- George A. Hoar, Assistant Professor of History, Syracuse University and Richard McKey, Jr., Assistant Professor of History, Syracuse University.

The Conceptual Structure of Geography -- Preston James, Chairman, Department of Geography, Syracuse University.

The Lexicon Rhetoricae of Sociology -- Paul Meadows, Chairman Department of Sociology and Anthropology, Syracuse University.

Moral Philosophy in Primary and Secondary Education -- Donald Meiklejohn, Professor of Philosophy, Syracuse University.

Political Science: A Brief Statement -- Frank Munger, Chairman, Department of Political Science, Syracuse University, _et al_.

Conflict is a Major Source in Molding Society -- Gerald Snyder, Professor of Education, State University College, Albany, New York.

Some Suggested Elements for Incorporation in Social Studies--- Melvin Tumin, Professor of Sociology and Anthropology, Princeton University.

Teaching Law as a Social Science--- James K. Weeks, Professor of Law, Syracuse University.

ACCOMPLISHMENTS AND USES

Because of wide differences in the intent and the content of the papers, no blanket statement would cover all that was written. Instead, it is necessary to review the accomplishments and uses of the individual papers. This review has benefited from the insight and comments by project consultant, Dr. Eunice Johns, Supervisor, Secondary School Social Studies, Wilmington Public Schools, Wilmington, Delaware. Dr. Johns is particularly well prepared for assessing the potential of these papers for application to the teaching of social studies.

Geography. The Conceptual Structure of Geography was considered one of the better papers. It can serve three purposes: to refresh teachers with backgrounds in geography, to introduce geography to teachers with little or no backgrounds, and to help the Curriculum Center to develop pupil materials. Major ideas presented by Professor James are: the regional concept and subordinate concepts, degrees of generalization of geographical concepts, ecosystems, habitat, culture regions, viability of states, the concept of land hemisphere, and basic concepts of cartography. From these concepts and ideas, "Habitat and Its Significance," "The Geographical Approach," and "Culture" were extracted for developing instructional materials. Generally, Dr. Johns considers this paper quite satisfactory for direct use by the classroom teacher.

Elements in Social Studies. Melvin Tumin has suggested two important ideas. The first is that schools should instruct students "in the nature of human similarities and differences and the 'reason' for these." The second is that to accomplish this goal there must be instruction in the scientific method, the two major ingredients of which are objectivity and precision. Professor Tumin is suggesting that to understand the major concept of "Culture," the student must examine multiple causation and effects, positive and negative aspects of behavior, common human problems, the range of solutions, cultural relativity, societies, norms, roles, and human behavior. From this paper the Center was able to identify "Culture," "Objectivity," and "Causation." The clarity and ease of reading make this paper valuable for direct use by the classroom teacher.

Law. While law is not traditionally included in the social sciences, Law as a Social Science contradicts this practice. The writer considers law to be more comprehensive than often believed, for "law is to recognize and to protect all human needs and to be a harmonizing agent of social control." Nine other concepts and five sub-concepts are identified on the basis of this one. Some of these are: law should reflect higher values; law is based on rights, duties, and privileges; law reflects societal changes and human conduct; and law functions to restore equilibrium, to give predictability, and to mold societal attitudes. This paper is particularly helpful to the classroom teacher because of the excellent references for each of the concepts and sub-concepts identified.

Moral Philosophy and Medicine. Two other papers from fields generally not included in social science are Moral Philosophy in Primary and Secondary Education and A Contribution from Medicine. Each had general rather than specific application for the Center.

Moral Philosophy, which identified "propositions" rather than "concepts," suggested that a main consideration for teachers should be with methodology and content in teaching social studies. The proposition that there must be "a relentless devotion to the critical examination of ideas" is in harmony with Professor Tumin's call for instruction in the scientific method. The major difference between the two is that Dr. Meiklejohn seeks reflection about values in society. This would commit the social studies to a procedure of examining beliefs and of drawing tentative conclusions about them. The value concepts "Freedom and Equality," "Consent of the Governed," "Loyalty," "Dignity of Man," and "Empathy" were drawn in part from this paper.

A Contribution from Medicine stresses the need "to think and act wisely about human affairs." Thinking and acting wisely originate in knowledge about the "practical concept" of the individual person and the related concepts of disorder, health, and treatment. This relationship stems from the fact that the individual exists within social, historical, economic, political, legal, or military settings. How he thinks and acts in these settings is reflected by the health, disorder, or treatment of the individual. Thus, the relationship of medicine to the social studies is clearly demonstrated in this highly readable paper. The Center intends to follow up some of Dr. Daly's suggestions and has considered developing materials around the concept of "Identity."

Political Science. Of the many concepts identified by the writers of Political Science, the major concept is "power." Power relationships are found throughout society and can be analyzed by looking at two other concepts: 1) "basic units," including the nation state and universal intergovernmental organizations, and 2) the interaction of these "basic units." Interaction also occurs between these "basic units" and individuals and groups. In turn, this interaction suggests other concepts: authority, rights, obligations, liberty, equality, sovereignty, legitimacy, revolutions, pluralism, federalism, democracy, liberalism, and conservatism. From these many concepts the Curriculum Center was able to identify and develop materials for "Power," "Sovereignty of the Nation-State in the Community of Nations," "Scarcity," "Interaction," and "Freedom and Equality."

Economics. Dr. Johns recommends for classroom use the position paper Main Themes in Economics, which identifies the idea of an economic system as the "main concept" of economics. The idea of a system offers an "analytical level" to relate economics and society. A system can be understood by examining "value objectives" which are: economizing, no arbitrary or capricious injury, equality of income and output, output flexibility and its limits, supply and demand, and prices as rationing devices. This paper was particularly significant in enabling the Center to extract the concepts of "Scarcity," "Input and Output," "Saving," and "The Modified Market Economy."

Rhetoric of Sociology. The Curriculum Center consultant considered The Lexicon Rhetoricae of Sociology to be a "fine example" of an erudite paper. The paper emphasizes culture and cultural behavior and examines the institutional, interactional, and innovational contexts of social behavior. In its present form, however, it probably would not be equally helpful to the classroom teacher. Instead, the value of this paper has been the uses to which the Center has put it. The first use was in developing the concepts of "Culture," "Social Change," "Interaction," and "Institutions." Secondly, the Center has drawn upon the general framework of this paper to discuss the relationship of sociological concepts to the social studies.

History. The writers of The Teaching of Historical Concepts attempt to avoid the problem of defining history by focusing, instead, on the need for history to help the student to see that "the past gives us the present." To grasp this perspective five "axioms" are identified: human nature is everywhere the same, events occur within a chain of cause and effect, causes and effects are rational in nature, the multiplicity of cause and effect, and change and continuity. The value of this paper rests not on its conclusion--that history gives the student an education--but on its use in developing the methodological concepts of "Historical Method and Point of View" and "Causation" which are also suggested by Tumin's paper. The criticisms of the paper are directed at its lack of organization, its overemphasis on causation, and its limited variety of concepts.

Methodology. The Role of Methodology in Social Studies Education accords with earlier suggestions that the social studies classroom is a place to develop knowledge "for effective citizen participation." In this regard, the writer considers four concepts as "fundamental": the nature of empirical knowledge, the nature of truth, the nature of validity, and the nature of explanation. The emphasis is upon teaching empirical skills in the classroom. Dr. Johns, however, believes this paper suffers from generality and lack of constructive suggestions for incorporating these concepts into the classroom. Therefore, its direct use is doubtful.

Conflict. The writer supports the idea that Conflict is a Major Source in Molding Society by noting the variety and extent of conflicts that exist. There are conflicts within the individual, conflicts between individuals, and group conflicts. These conflicts can be broken down further into partial conflicts, total conflicts, and resolution of conflicts. Each is illustrated by examples. While this paper is a brief and interesting resume of ideas, it does not list concepts as the term was used by the Center. Its value has been in highlighting the concept of conflict.

State of Social Sciences. This paper does not directly develop concepts, but attempts to show the practical and theoretical self-sufficiency of the various social sciences. In the writer's view, the social sciences suffer "The mix of traditions, practices, and of over-claim and under-claim, and procedures [which] is extreme." Although this paper has been useful to the Center, it tends to be too negative to help the classroom teacher identify concepts and develop instructional materials.

OVERVIEW

The position papers were valuable in providing the opportunity for representatives of the social sciences and the Center to focus on the task of developing concepts for the social studies in elementary and secondary education. The inevitable differences in understanding and accomplishing this task occurred, and subsequent discussions to assess the contributions of these papers were required.

A number of results were obtained from the papers and the discussions. One result was that the Staff reached consensus about concepts and identified thirty-four major ones. This stemmed in part from the similarity of concepts in different papers and in part from actual overlapping. A second result was that the papers offered guidelines for "mining" and developing further concepts. A third result was that variations in the papers suggested the need for teacher-consultants to join the Staff. These consultants lent to the project a fresh outlook and an objectivity that the Staff sometimes felt it lacked.

While these discussions between Staff, consultants, and writers brought out variations in highlighting certain papers and in assessing the total project, the overall result was success in identifying concepts and developing instructional materials around them. Perhaps above all, the position papers and the discussions helped achieve "the indispensable link...between the scholar and the classroom."[1]

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1. Roy A. Price, Warren Hickman, and Gerald Snyder, Major Concepts for the Social Studies (Syracuse, New York: Social Studies Curriculum Center, Syracuse University, 1965), p. 4.

CHAPTER V

THE IDENTIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

The last of the position papers was delivered to the Social Studies Curriculum Center by its authors in November, 1964. A full year had gone into the drafting of these papers by the scholars contracted for their preparation. However, the Center had not been marking time while the papers were being drafted. The faculty seminars which had extended from the fall of 1962 through the late spring of 1963 had indicated the need for further background in certain areas. Thus, one of the first tasks of the Center was to launch a survey of the professional literature pertinent to the research and development of the Center.

At the same time that the staff was surveying the related professional literature, it began to collect and examine school curriculum guides. These guides represented schools stretching from California to Maryland, and Texas to New England. Frequently, they illustrated teachers' awareness of a need for revision, while reflecting the frustrations from a lack of objectives.

Textbooks for all elementary and secondary grades were collected from the major publishers. Again, there was the procedure of surveying for content and objective. Any variations in suggested methodology or presentation of written material were noted.

By the time the position papers had been completed by the scholars from the disciplines, the survey of the professional literature, the school curriculum guides, and the textbooks from the commercial publishers had produced a dismal picture. Everyone seemed to be trying to do the same thing just a little bit better, but the pattern of 1916 was still apparent in all the curriculum guides and textbooks. Great hopes rested with the position papers as a source of major concepts for the social studies.

As indicated in the preceding chapter, the position papers varied in quality and in usefulness to the Center. What some authors had described as basic concepts were in reality generalizations or basic facts and information from which concepts might have been developed. Other authors listed numerous concepts, some too specialized and disciplinarily oriented to be considered as major concepts for the total social studies. However, there were some excellent leads in these papers. The next task was to mine these materials for a workable number of major concepts.

Condensations of the position papers, highlighting and enumerating concepts, have been prepared by the Center staff. The list was far too long for practical application to the research and development project of the Center. At this point, Dean Stephen Bailey of the Maxwell Graduate School chaired a two-day meeting of the authors of the position papers and of key colleagues from their disciplines. This meeting was held off campus in order to avoid interruption and to provide maximum concentration on the problem before it. For two days the scholars attempted to pinpoint and highlight the most important of the concepts discussed in the earlier position papers. This proved to be a clarification meeting, concentrating on the uncertainty surrounding the earlier disciplinary presentations. However, at the conclusion of this two-day session the staff still retained a list of well over one hundred major concepts.

CLASSIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

During the next two months the Center staff met in the home of one of the staff members one evening each week, at which time one or two professors who had prepared position papers were invited to clarify still further the major concepts in their discipline. In effect, these meetings became quiz sessions in which the Center staff bombarded the scholars with questions designed to bring forth identification and definition of key concepts. Of a special value were the sessions of Dr. Preston James concerning geography, with Dr. Paul Meadows on sociology, and with Dean Bailey who was responsible for drawing attention to several basic concepts which crossed most of the disciplines of the social sciences.

More than 500 pages of position papers had been reduced to approximately 200 pages of identification notes. Based on the further conversations with the scholars, the Center staff now began the task of narrowing the list of concepts to a manageable number. Many promising strands were explored. There was neither the time nor the resources to include them all. Furthermore, if all could have been developed, they could not have fitted into the social studies curriculum. A priority list was necessary. For three months the Center staff met and worked continually to reduce the number of major concepts. The final working list settled at thirty-four.

It is most important that no one harbor the false conclusion that the Center believed there were only thirty-four major concepts in the social sciences. The Center was not even certain that it had chosen the most important thirty-four concepts and has never made such a claim. Instead, the Center selected certain concepts which tended to cross the lines of most of the major disciplines. A few were primarily single discipline concepts but unique and necessary to the understanding of the discipline concerned. There are good arguments for the elimination of some of the concepts selected for development by the Center, and equally good arguments for the addition of concepts which were not included. In fact, at the end of five years of research and development in this area, the staff would now alter its list. For the most part, the discarding of a concept which had been included in the lengthy list drawn from the position papers was merely a temporary measure to make room for another concept which was relative to more disciplines.

As the list of concepts was narrowed to workable proportions, the Center staff noted that these concepts tended to fall into three general categories, and from that point established these as working categories. Eighteen concepts were categorized as substantive concepts by February, 1965; five were listed as value concepts; and eleven were classified as concepts of method. These categories and a brief description of the concepts in each category may be found in the Social Studies Curriculum Center publication, Major Concepts for Social Studies.

The Center is now aware of other ways in which it might have grouped concepts and of other groupings which might have been included. For example, there might well be a category of concepts evolving about important periods in man's development, such as Feudalism, the Renaissance, the Reformation, or the Industrial Revolution. In the winter of 1964-65, the Center had already begun to appreciate the magnitude of the problem it faced and determined to identify no further concepts at that time, but rather to find a means of presenting conceptual materials in the classroom.

PROBLEMS OF IDENTIFICATION AND DEFINITION

While attempting to narrow the list of concepts to manageable proportions, the Center was bombarded with a variety of meanings attached to the term "Concept." New literature was beginning to appear in the field. Whereas Jerome Bruner and other earlier authors had rather explicitly defined concepts, a new rash of speeches and writings were throwing the term about quite loosely. Over the next two years, the term "concept" was to appear heading lists of generalizations as well as lists of facts and figures.

The Center staff reached a consensus on its thirty-four concepts, not, however, without lengthy and heated discussion. The arguments pro and con over the inclusion of value concepts is touched upon in the Center publication, Major Concepts for the Social Studies. Having defined concept for its own purposes, the Center now found it necessary to define the individual concepts. The problem of defining an already identified concept was to prove the greatest problem yet encountered by the Social Studies Curriculum Center.

CHAPTER VI

THE MAJOR CONCEPTS

In February, 1965, Dr. Price, Dr. Warren L. Hickman, and Dr. Gerald Smith appeared before a general session of the New York State Council for the Social Studies, in response to an invitation for the Center to present a program on concepts in the social studies. The reaction of the hundreds of teachers present astounded the Center staff. The Staff was bombarded with questions and requests for copies of material. For weeks thereafter, letters and telephone calls to the Center asked for anything which would further explain the listing of concepts and their possible use in the social studies. With great reluctance, the Center produced Major Concepts for the Social Studies. To the staff of the Center, and especially to Roy Price who had been intimately concerned with the development of this project since 1962, it seemed presumptuous to attempt an explanation of the Center's work and especially a listing of major concepts for the social studies for the entire profession. Although the Center had only been in operation since June, 1963, the preliminary work of 1962 had given the Center two and one-half years of frequently frustrating experiences in attempting to achieve consensus on major concepts, even among the small staff of the Social Studies Curriculum Center.

However, major concepts for the social studies was drafted in April, 1965. Even then, doubts as to the wisdom of releasing preliminary information of this type held back its publication until November, 1965. These doubts as to the wisdom of this publication disappeared in the reaction to it at the National Council for Social Studies annual conference in Miami in November, 1965. At that meeting, a presentation on concepts was made by Dr. Price, Dr. Hickman, and Mrs. Verna Fancett. Major Concepts was out of print in a few short weeks. A second printing was scarcely announced before the supply was again exhausted. Months passed without a further reprint as the Center believed its later work was outdating the publication. However, the continuing barrage of letters requesting copies finally pressed the Center to authorize a third printing early in 1967.

This was the first attempt at dissemination of an interim report to the profession by one of the Project Social Studies centers established by the United States Office of Education.

Major Concepts for the Social Studies has been included as an appendix to this report and should be read at this point before continuing with Chapter VII, in order to appreciate the later problem of analyzing the meaning of the concepts selected.

CHAPTER VII

ANALYZING THE MEANING OF SELECTED CONCEPTS

Identification of major concepts had taken longer than had been anticipated when the proposal for the Social Studies Curriculum Center was prepared and sent to the United States Office of Education. As late as the winter of 1964-65, the Center staff had visualized no major problems standing between the completion of concept identification and the beginning of the preparation of pupil materials. In retrospect, the staff would appear naive, but even its most pessimistic consultants did not anticipate the need for detailed definition of each of the identified concepts.

It was soon apparent that when a member of the staff used a term such as "comparative advantage," "power," "secularization," "loyalty," or "saving" to identify a concept, that term did not mean the same thing to all members of the staff. Once the staff realized this problem of multiple definitions, it was surprised only that it had not anticipated the problem. As the procedure of definition progressed, the staff argued for weeks and even months to hammer out a one or two sentence statement concerning a concept. It was only after these numerous conversations that definitions in common were developed in the minds of the staff.

It is important that any group of teachers or writers appreciate this problem before presenting a list of concepts to their fellow faculty or to students. The Center staff has examined lists which later were prepared by departments of education and by faculty within schools, and upon investigation has found several versions of the concept developed around the term or title identifying a particular concept.

An example of the problem faced by anyone who is developing concepts for teachers to present to pupils can be found in the Center concept, Sovereignty and the Nation-State. Even after the pupil materials had been written and were being tried out in schools, both pupils and teachers informed the Center that they could not always agree with the Center's use of terms.

One or two teachers argued strongly that a nation was not what was called a nation by the Center in its pupil material. Others complained that the development of nationalism as explained in the pupil material was contrary to the explanation given in a particular textbook which they had been using. Still other teachers remarked that the dates and events which the Center material noted as leading to the development of the Western nations state system were not the same that the teachers had been using. Actually, the pupil material developed for Sovereignty and the Nation-State was based on the works of the leading scholars who had written in that field, some from as long ago as the days of Hugo Grotius. The definitions of terms used in the development of the concept were drawn from such sources as social science dictionaries and encyclopediae of social science.

Every attempt had been made to use terms in the writing of pupil materials which were universally accepted by scholars and other authorities in the social sciences. The lack of agreement by teachers and pupils as to these definitions revealed a most sloppy condition of term definition within the profession. Terms such as 'community,' 'nation,' 'state,' 'nationalism,' 'patriotism,' and 'sovereignty' were being handled as loosely in most classrooms as they were by local politicians, speakers to business men's clubs, and the debators in the local barber shop. One of the tasks of the Center was making certain that teachers and pupils learned and used correct social science definitions in building concepts. Until a vocabulary meant the same thing to all readers, the concepts developed by readers from the same set of pupil materials could actually have little in common. All pupil materials, therefore, were designed to include a definition of terms.

For seven months, the Center worked on a phase of pupil material development which it had not anticipated in its original plans. This stage involved the drafting of definition outlines for each concept. The Center staff found that in some cases as many as thirty-five pages of outline notes were required to assure that two or more readers of a concept definition would have a somewhat similar interpretation of that concept after reading its definition. A concept is supposed to be a mental picture or organization of facts and ideas within the mind which is triggered whenever the word or phrase identifying the concept is mentioned. But even as a painter may take weeks to prepare a picture which could be labeled with a single word or phrase, such as 'power' or 'multiple causation.' During the next seven months following the completion of the list of identified concepts, the staff defined eighteen concepts in detailed outlines.

The first outline was prepared for the concept, Resolution of Conflict. This outline was prepared jointly by four members of the staff, a procedure which proved inefficient. Thereafter, one member of the staff was assigned an outline for a particular concept. A draft for such a concept could be completed in as little as three weeks or might require as long as two months. In each case, the author was required not only to draw carefully upon the position papers which had been prepared for the Center, but to check every conceivable controversial term with the professional social science dictionaries and encyclopediae. A bibliography of the classical through the most recent scholarly works on related subjects was used as resource material. Time was saved by assigning concepts to persons who had already studied and read in depth in areas related to a specific concept.

First drafts of these concept outlines were then brought to staff meetings, where they were discussed much as a seminar paper might be discussed by graduate students and faculty. Criticism was ruthless; drafts were shredded and returned to the authors with instructions for a second, a third, and even a fourth draft. Each draft underwent the same critical examination until the entire staff could accept a draft as defining a particular concept as that concept had developed in each of their minds, and more importantly, as they believed that concept was originally intended to be used by social scientists in their work. In one case, the author of an outline brought before the staff a fine paper. After only brief consideration, he was told, "This is an excellent paper, but it does not define the concept which has been identified by the Center. We should change either the title of the concept or the paper, and we suggest retaining the title and drafting a new outline."

It is important to realize that, although later authors of pupil materials would follow some of the outlines quite closely, these original outlines were not designed to be the first step in the writing of pupil materials. The outlines were to make certain any writer, whether on the Social Studies Curriculum Center staff or in one of the thousands of American schools, could write his own material, having in common with the staff a definition of the concept.

This report includes the above emphasis on a carefully prepared definition of concepts before their presentation to teachers or students, because this is no longer a problem facing just the Syracuse Social Studies Curriculum Center. By 1966, numerous schools and regional groups had been organized in summer workshops to prepare conceptual materials for their classes and their fellow faculty. All would be wise to profit by the above experience. Otherwise they may believe all their students have developed a similar concept when actually a class may complete a unit with each pupil carrying with him a quite different stereotype to be triggered whenever a particular "concept" label is mentioned.

To illustrate the need for and the role of the concept outlines, three of these outlines are included below. Two are concepts of method, and one, a substantive concept. They are:

Historical Method and Point of View	(Fourth Draft)
Sovereignty and the Nation-State	(Fourth Draft)
The Concept of Causation	(Third Draft)

* * *

THE CONCEPT OF HISTORICAL METHOD AND POINT OF VIEW

THE CONCEPT OF
HISTORICAL METHOD AND POINT OF VIEW

This is an age in which the scope and spread of communication media floods the average citizen with masses of material concerning international affairs, religion, domestic politics, natural disasters, and education. Occupied as they are with the growing problems of specialization, lawyers, doctors, pharmacists, nurses, machinists, farmers, and businessman increasingly tend to accept presentations outside their own particular field as packages of ultimate truth.

Citizens in a functioning democracy must be able to select, authenticate, and evaluate facts. They must recognize the problems inherent in a point of view, and should learn to interpret the facts they have at their command. Unless these citizens learn to apply the historical method to their consideration of political, economic, military and social problems they may not long retain a democracy. Processed, (pre-fabricated) conceptions of world and local affairs are the ideal tools of demagogues and tyrants. As Santayana said: "Those who cannot remember the past are condemned to repeat it."

Students should learn of history as a process, constantly changing, and in need of continual re-interpretation. It can never be a static body of statistics, maps, and chronicled events between the covers of a book.

I. HISTORY IS A PROCESS

Events or facts are not in themselves history. The much over-used phrase "history is being made" is a part of the general stereotype which mislabels and event or an action as history. Fighting a battle or winning an election is not "making history."

History is the record of the facts of man's life through all ages and the significance of those facts to man.

Note: 1. Record implies recording, therefore, history is not events or "facts," but the recorded facts. 2. History is not only a recording or a chronicle; it is also the significance of those recorded facts to man in the past and the present. Significance is a matter of judgment; it varies with observers. Therefore, history involves interpretation and evaluation; it cannot be restricted to or identified as a string of events.

A. Process is a continuing development involving many changes. It is difficult to look into this process because it is a continuing development, a constant building and remolding.

One element producing change is the continual addition of new evidence. This may be evidence of events of which we were not previously aware. In this sense an event of the past, unrecorded and unknown today, is similar to an explosion which creates sound waves, but which occurs in a desert where there are no ears to hear. History is not unrecorded events, no matter how numerous or how influential they may have been. New evidence from archaeological discoveries, philological research, the efforts of the cuneiformist, or other sources may alter considerably the structure of events previously accepted as history.

1. The Persian Wars can be used to illustrate history as a process rather than a collection of events.

2. Herodotus, an immediate (contemporary) observer wrote his story of the wars. He referred to his work as his inquiry - historia in his native Greek.[1]

   a. He is known to have been prejudiced favoring the Alecemonidae family over the Peisistradae. These families controlled Greek politics at that time, one being pro-Persian, the other anti-Persian, owing to Persian influence in the struggle between those favoring authoritarian rule and those supporting a more democratic government.[2]
   b. His comments on Miltiades and Greek strategy are affected by the family supporting the general.

3. Later Greek sources reveal these prejudices and other information concerning Greco-Persian relations.

4. Myths, such as the story of the Marathon runner which appeared for the first time 600 years after the wars, cloud the period.

5. European historians developed a body of ancient history from myths, new information, original reports, and archaeological finds from 1600 to 1900. This material with its interpretation by earlier historians was passed on to our contemporary historians who stand mid this stream of events, reports, and interpretations which compose the process of history. The contemporary historian thus becomes a part of the process as the stream sweeps around him and he adds his interpretations to the stream. Thus the historical process is man-made. It is the reporting of facts and the interpretation of their significance to man and his acts.

B. History is a process involving several elements which are fluid and flexible. The historian is himself a part of this process. He is more than a mere observer, for he makes it his life's work to examine and interpret the significance of recorded events. Because each historian has a point of view and must select facts, evaluate those facts, and interpret the evidence he has collected, history is as flexible and changing as the historians.

It is important to understand how the historian is related to the process in order to comprehend the process. This naturally leads to the questions:

What does a historian do to make history?
How does he think?
How does he approach a problem?
How does he define a problem?

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1. Historia in Greek meant "a learning by inquiry."
2. Swain, The Ancient World, p. 361, (First Edition).

We attempt to answer these questions by explaining the historian's point of view and the manner in which he selects, evaluates, and interprets his evidence.

1. The point of view in time and space of the historian will be influenced by personal biases, past evidence, and all other factors affecting the observer and influencing the shape of evidence arriving at his position in time and space.
2. Selection of facts is affected by the observer's ability, beliefs, and location.
3. Evaluation of facts depends upon the observer's tools, ability, background and philosophy, and sometimes his desire to prove a point.
4. Interpretation of the material of the stream of history (evidence) obviously depends on the interpretor's background and objectives.
5. Chronology is important to a cause and effect relationship. This in itself implies continuing effects and causes.[3]
6. Addition of new observance material alters the content of history.
7. Each of the above elements, 1 - 6, will be discussed later as sub-sections of this outline. At this point they are mentioned only for their usefulness in demonstrating history as a process which is not static because each of the above elements is a variable.

II. POINT OF VIEW

The term "point of view" is used so commonly as to suffer from the multiplicity of definitions burdening most of our disciplinary terminology. For the historian, "point of view" indicates a climate of opinion.

A. Point of view is a cultural element. It involves the reaction of the individual to his culture, not just the cultural determinants themselves.

   1. The element of time is basic to a point of view.

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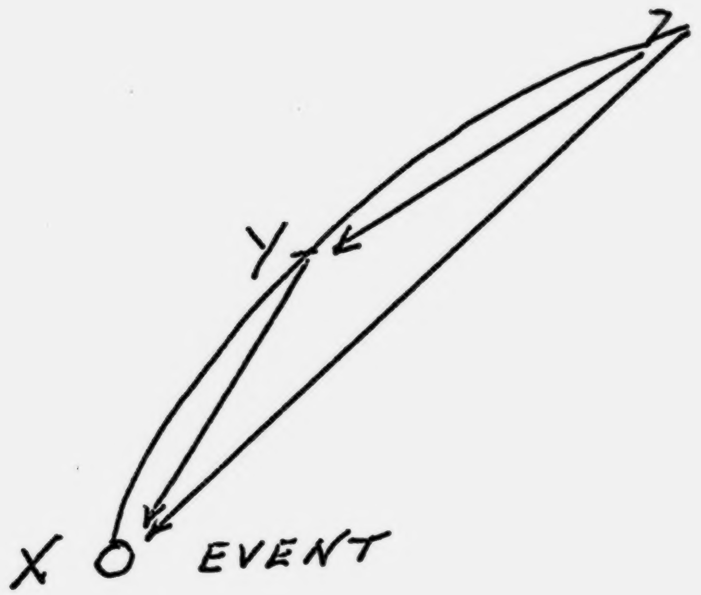
[3] See the Social Studies Curriculum Center outline paper for The Concept of Causation.

a. As described above, history is a process. Note the following diagram:



b. Observer X may observe an event as it takes place. Observer Y may report this event as he sees it from a later position in time. His report will be based on the report of X and others who witnessed the event. Observer Z, much later in time may be influenced both by direct observers of the event, such as X, and by intermediate observers such as Y.

c. As a process, history is a continuing, changing development. Points of view are stations along the path of this process.

d. Time is basic to point of view in that it establishes an observer in relation to primary and secondary sources of evidence and, thereby, affects his view by determining the addition of new evidence and past interpretations of old evidence flowing to him.

e. Time is important as it relates a historian or any other observer to a particular set of cultural determinents (see 2 b. below). Time determines in the illustrations below whether we are referring to 1765 or 1965 Vietnamese and American cultures.

2. An observer's position in space is a second basic factor of point of view.

   a. An observer tends to interpret and evaluate according to his cultural background. A Buddhist monk in a Vietnamese monastery will view events in Saigon quite differently than an American student from a Kansas farm or the heart of Chicago.

      (1) The American student cannot avoid thinking of solutions to economic and political problems which will involve the use of tractors, harvesters, buses, railroads, western legal procedures, individual incentive, and equal opportunity.

        (2) The Vietnamese monk will think in terms of non-assertion, and of farms without electricity and inaccessable to tractors or harvestors. He will plan in terms of eastern legal philosophy, and a culture of oppressed masses and centuries of mandarin-type rulers.

    b. The observer's position in space cannot be separated from his position in time. The culture of Egypt, for example, has developed dramatically from a colonial people of 1940 to a socialist state striving to industrialize in 1965.
    c. Time-space coordinates jointly determine the cultural position from which an observer views history. The sociologist speaks of ethnocentrism as the tendency of each culture to evaluate other cultures in terms of its own standards and to perceive its standards and procedures as superior. We must recognize this coloring of events, this point of view, determined largely by the observer's position among the cultures distributed around the world.

3. We have told the student (I. B. 1-6 above) that point of view is one of the factors influencing and shaping evidence which, because it is never static, makes history a process. We should try, confusing as it may seem, to make the student also appreciate that the process influences point of view. A point of view affects an interpretation; likewise interpretations of a cultural group affect an individual's point of view.

4. Evidence is invariably incomplete.

    a. The observer (historian) is limited largely to information left behind by other men in written documents.
    b. Supplementary facts are sometimes made available by archaeologists and the study of such other disciplines as language.
    c. People involved in an event may never write about it. The number of reporters of events before the 19th century is extremely limited. If observers do write, their records may be destroyed.
    d. Therefore, the observer is limited in his ability to complete an accurate picture of any event in history because of the incomplete evidence.

        (1) Again the Persian Wars (490-980 B.C.) are a good illustration.
        (2) For centuries European historians developed their interpretation of the Persian Wars around the writings of early Greeks. Only in modern times has the Persian version become available for study by the average student.

    e. The observer's point of view in time and space help determine the completeness of evidence.

5. Available evidence is usually biased.

    a. People can only see an event happening before them from their own point of view (see diagram above). They cannot take a completely impartial attitude, if only because they cannot be everywhere at once, viewing the same event from all sides at one time.

b. The account of any one individual is only a representation of the way in which he thinks he saw an event. Not only that, but the account is only a representation of a representation. He may use vague or incorrect terms in representing what his senses represented to him from his point of view.

(1) For example, Adam Clayton Powell was found guilty of libel by courts in 1963 and 1964 for an attack upon the integrity of a resident of his congressional district.
(2) The view of a majority of Mr. Powell's parishoners was the opposite of the court. They viewed the affair as an outstanding example of individual right to free speech.
(3) Street demonstrations in Selma, Alabama, were viewed and reported entirely differently by white residents of Selma and demonstrators who came from Chicago and New York City.

B. The chart below attempts to illustrate the continuous evolution of points of view throughout time.

The point of view of a professional historian, at any point in time, is influenced by:

1. The impact of his culture upon him as an individual.

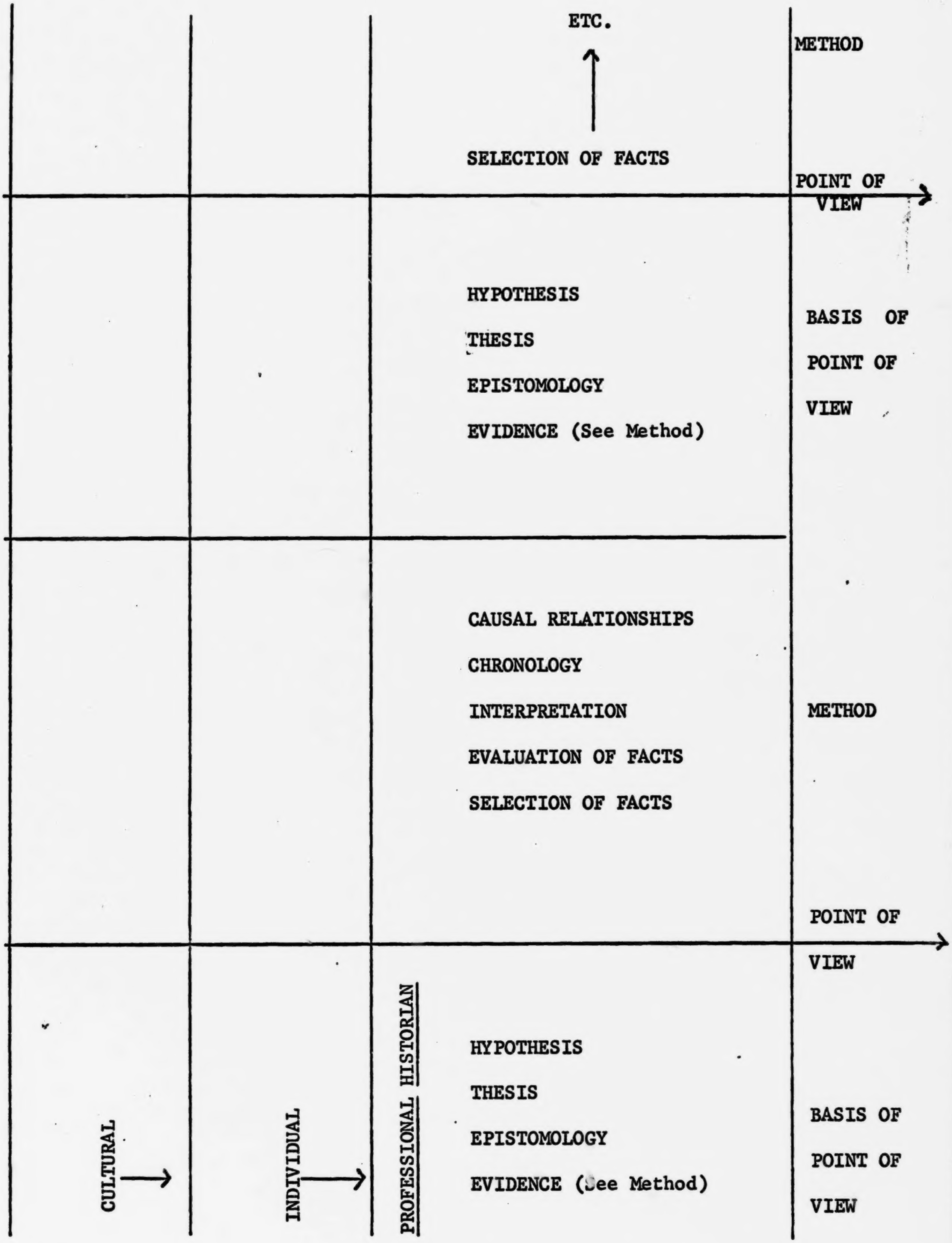
2. The idiosyncrasies of the individual.

3. The method of observation and history employed by the individual as a professional historian.

The cultural and individual influences on the professional historian are illustrated by the horizontal relationship of the columns.

The vertical arrangement shows that the evidence collected by the historian and epistomology, thesis, and hypothesis are the basis for a historian's (affected horizontally) point of view. However, it should be noted that these factors listed as "basis of point of view" are also a part of the historian's methodology.

Each point of view influences method from that point on. In turn each factor of method is a part of the changing history which will become a part of the historian's background and, therefore, will affect the point of view of the next historian in time. Even the same historian will have different points of view at different times in his life.


ETC.
SELECTION OF FACTS
METHOD
POINT OF VIEW
HYPOTHESIS
THESIS
EPISTOMOLOGY
EVIDENCE (See Method)
BASIS OF POINT OF VIEW
CAUSAL RELATIONSHIPS
CHRONOLOGY
INTERPRETATION
EVALUATION OF FACTS
SELECTION OF FACTS
METHOD
POINT OF VIEW
HYPOTHESIS
THESIS
EPISTOMOLOGY
EVIDENCE (See Method)
BASIS OF POINT OF VIEW
CULTURAL
INDIVIDUAL
PROFESSIONAL HISTORIAN

C. A point of view is not the same as an epistomological or philosophical position. However, such a position may be one of several factors creating a point of view. (See chart above.)

1. Epistomology as used here refers to the study or theory of the origin, nature, methods, and limits of knowledge.

2. The immediate methodology of the historians becomes involved. How does he seek knowledge? How does he view knowledge? What does he classify as evidence?

   a. Does he use a scientific approach to seeking and sifting evidence?
   b. How does he use bits of knowledge in building a structure? A historian's task is one of structuring, in which he relates events in and to structures.

3. The education, family, social background, and political community of the observer will affect his ideas as to the nature, methods, and limits of knowledge. Therefore, several observers will tend to have several epistomological positions. The manner in which the historian treats knowledge, and his definition of knowledge is a part of the base from which he seeks for evidence. This base is his point of view.

4. By philosophy of history we are referring to a conception of the "movers" or causes of the course of history.

   a. These conceptions are bound to differ with the basic outlook as to the purpose and significance of history held by an observer.
   b. In history, "philosophy" appears as a concern for and evaluation of basic forces which determine historical events.
   c. Early historians spoke of the acts and environment of man in terms of a flow toward an ultimate goal, with both the flow and the goal being only manifestations of God's purpose. All history was supposed to be written to illustrate how this purpose was being expressed.
   d. Later observers such as Hegel, Marx, and Comte, offer differing explanations of history.

      (1) Hegel attempts to prove the development of man and his world are a part of a process leading to self-realization of the idea of freedom.
      (2) Marx establishes a materialistic theory of history. Later philosophers and historians add or develop sociological approaches stemming from the changing philosophical theories of the environmentalists and rationalists.

5. Our concern here is not with a detailed description or discussion of philosophies of history. At this point we should be making the student aware that such philosophies will color or prejudice a historian's observations and thereby, affect his point of view.

III. THESES AND HYPOTHESES

Theses or hypotheses are not to be mistaken for synonyms of point of view. They are related to point of view because the thesis or hypothesis of past historians contribute to the background of the later historian and, therefore, affect his point of view. As such, thesis and hypothesis are a part of the historical process.

A. A thesis for our purpose may be defined as an unproved and probably undemonstrable assertion which the historian seeks to defend as an acceptable premise for later interpretation of history.

B. An observer may subscribe to a philosophy of history which leads him to believe all events are ordered by a single determining factor or a formula of combined factors.

   1. He may develop a hypothesis, the definition of which for our purposes we shall accept as an unproved but testable assertion, statement, or proposition about the relationships between two or more historical phenomena. This assertion is tentatively accepted to explain certain facts in order to provide a basis for further investigation.

   2. For example, a historian may become an economic or a geographical determinist, explaining all events as the result of original economic motivation or geographical factors.

C. The rules of selecting and evaluating evidence may remain basically the same, but various groups may adopt differing hypotheses. The American Civil War offers a good illustration.

   1. The Civil War was explained by 19th century New England historians as primarily a war to abolish slavery.

   2. 20th century historians have emphasized causes such as the competition of the newly opened west, the national bank, tariffs, and the shift of political power away from the south.

   3. This shift will be discussed in more detail under Interpretation below. However, these changing interpretations have influenced observers to adopt views such as that of the economic determinist who may claim the Civil War was solely the result of northern financial legislation.

4. A "working hypothesis" may be used to provide a basis for further investigation or agreement.

    a. Have the students read Turner's frontier thesis, the first two chapters of Beard's Economic Interpretation of the Constitution, and Parrington's Main Currents in American Thought. Ask the students to describe the three different interpretations of American history resulting from three different authors beginning with three different hypotheses.
    b. Turner emphasizes individualism and optimism of spirit. He indicates that once the frontier is closed (or ceases to exist), American dynamism will slow down. Show the merit of this approach in the changes in American society since Turner's writing.
    c. Beard believes we must see the conflict of interest groups to understand American civilization. His is a story of one class exploiting another. He is Hobbesian in his belief that the government will need to control man's acquisitiveness. American civilization is a jungle battleground, according to Beard.
    d. Parrington emphasizes ideals. He carries on the ideas of the French romantics such as equality, and the English liberal philosophy of individualism.

D. The student should not confuse any one of the elements, such as a thesis, as being the same as the whole point of view. It is likely no two persons can ever have such a similar background and space-time coordinates as to have exactly the same point of view for all the facts and interpretations flowing by him in the stream of history. The good historian is the one who recognizes this and accordingly attempts to counter the biases of his point of view by objective selection and evaluation of facts. Even here, however, he recognizes his definition of objectivity is bound to be colored. (Compare the point of view and definition of objectivity which would have existed between a Confucian historian in China and an Oxford historian in 1860.)

IV. FACTS AND THE HISTORIAN

A. What constitutes a fact for a historian?

1. The dictionary defines a fact as something that has happened or actually exists, a truth, reality.

2. A historian would agree, but he would not accept anything as a fact until he has had an opportunity to examine and approve of its source.

    a. Is the source primary or secondary?

        (1) Is the information available in original letters, telegrams, or official documents, or does it exist only in interpretations, condensations, or reports of reports?

(2) If documents or other evidence are offered as primary sources, the question of authenticity arises. If sources are secondary, it is essential to verify and to correlate.

b. The availability of evidence influences a historian's willingness to accept secondary sources as accurate.

B. Is evidence authentic?

1. A good historian must question all evidence.

2. Until he has verified a statement, an event, or a source, he must continue to doubt. Explain documentation to the students.

3. Verification is not always simple.

a. Memoirs are usually written to justify or glorify the writer. Use memoirs of Caesar, Lansing, House, and Churchill as examples.
b. Letters, telegrams, and official documents are sometimes destroyed to hide evidence contrary to official release. At the close of the Second World War, tons of classified material were burned at SHAEF.
c. Governments around the world are increasingly aware of the need to rally mass support. The modern government "produces" evidence to support its actions, thus clouding the trail for historians. Currently this is referred to as "manipulating the news."
d. Myths and legends, such as the story of the Marathon runner, are sometimes repeated for so many generations that historians of repute have passed these on to later historians who have relied on the reputation of the earlier historian as proof of the validity of the story.
e. Forgeries are not uncommon. The "Donation of Constantine" was an accepted document bolstering wide territorial claims of the paper for 700 years. Eventually the document was proven a forgery.

C. Corroboration is essential.

1. It is not enough that the historian is certain he has authenticated a document or certified a statement.

2. He must strengthen his presentation of this fact by indicating how any other interested party may verify his findings.

3. Only when it is possible to corroborate a statement of fact to the satisfaction of later historians is a fact able to stand for a time as a historical fact.

4. We must be careful to develop a healthy skepticism among students rather than cynicism, but skepticism there must be.

D. Facts are not static.

1. There are no absolutes.

2. Instead, there are relative abstractions which are constantly changing.

    a. From an event or an object an observer obtains a view which he interprets.
    b. This abstraction from the event, related to the observer's experience changes even as the observer retells his experience, and is changed by re-interpretation through later presentations by others.
    c. The changing nature of a "fact" is discussed in more detail below under IV. Interpretation.

E. Facts must go through a process of evaluation and selection.

1. Facts must be weighed as to their relative value and position in a chain of events.

    a. Again, the relative importance as one of several or many contributing causes of noticeable effect is basic to an explanation of cause and effect. See Causation later in this outline.
    b. The historians who originally tended to explain the American Civil War as being fought simply to free slaves were attributing the war to a single cause. Today this is considered one of several causes, and it would be quite inaccurate to offer this as the reason why both western farmers and Boston ship-builders entered the war. Historians still differ over the emphasis to be placed on differing economic and social systems, tariffs, a national bank, public expenditures, free land for western farmers, states' rights, or slavery as major causes of the war.
    c. Some facts may even be discarded as playing so small a role as to confuse and diffuse by their inclusion.

2. Selectivity of facts is closely related to evaluation.

    a. Appropriate facts must be selected for evaluation and even after evaluation, otherwise the physical task of the historian will be too great for the human mind to accomplish in a lifetime.
    b. Selectivity must be based on the above factors of the authentication and verification as well as relative importance to the structure if the historian is to be objective.

3. The historian must respect all the evidence he can find even as he must question all evidence.

    a. He must not seek or select only that evidence which supports his preconceptions.
    b. He must not reject evidence which is contrary to his view and which could tumble the entire structure he has been patiently constructing.

c. No apparently relevant cause may be omitted from his screening. It may be dropped by objective selectivity, but not until weighed for its role in the structure being developed.
d. It is for this reason most historians believe it necessary for themselves to acquire at least a "smattering" of knowledge in each of the social sciences in order to explain a single historical event adequately.

IV. INTERPRETATION OF EVIDENCE

Interpretation is an essential part of as well as a result of a point of view. (See Chart in II. B. above.)

A. History is not only knowledge of the past, but a study of the meaning of that knowledge.

B. The past influences the present. An observer today has a point of view based on his position in the present culture, a culture built upon the past. We understand the present by the past and the past by the present. As John Dewey would say, knowledge and the world about us is in continuum; to be separated in logic but not in reality.

1. The particular view a historian has of the past may lead him to develop preconceptions which cause him to misinterpret later evidence which he discovers.

2. In this sense the historian's interpretation has been a result of his point of view, and in terms of further investigation will be a part of his point of view.

3. Allan Nevins has written:

> "It is almost impossible to name a political, economic, or social preconception which is not molded by and colored by history. It is equally impossible to name a piece of real history which is not molded and colored by political, economic, and social beliefs."

C. The historian must attempt to use his knowledge of the way people think and react today, and the way they apparently thought and reacted during the time he is studying, in order to judge the quality of the written evidence available to him.[4]

1. What one generation considers pertinent another may ignore.

2. This requires a constant rewriting of history as interpretations change.

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[4] See position paper prepared for Social Studies Curriculum Center by G. A. Hoar, and R. H. McKey, Jr., The Teaching of Historical Concepts. Also see the value concept outline by the Center, The Concept of Empathy.

3. Again note the example of the American Civil War. Living with problems of the national bank, tariffs, western land, etc., the historian of 1870 often failed to see their connection with secession in a generation swept with the emotion of the slavery issue. Later historians, in their anxiety to reveal the importance of the economic factors tended to debunk the slavery issue. Contemporary historians have accepted both views as a part of the pattern of multiple causes of the war.

4. The "absolute" truth, the certitudes of one generation often are cast aside as fallacies by the next.

   a. Students of the late 19th and early 20th century were taught that Andrew Jackson, the man of the west, brought democracy and compassion for the common man from his western background.
   b. Later generations of students have been exposed to the Schlessinger thesis, which developed the idea that the west and Jackson were not "democratic."
   c. Students may see this certitude giving way in time by reading early accounts of the Constitution as the will and word of God, and contrasting this to a reading of a part of Charles A. Beard's Economic Interpretation of the Constitution.

D. Interpretation involves revision by a historian of earlier observers' interpretations passed on to him as historical evidence.

1. Historians must take from the past what they believe is meaningful and show what is the meaning. This is giving meaning to experience.

2. As almost all evidence of the past is an interpretation passed on by an earlier observer, most interpretation by contemporary historians is reinterpretation of earlier interpretations.

3. This means interpretation involves making judgments, which must be based on the historian's point of view (his conceptions and his misconceptions.)

4. If such judgments are not made, history becomes nothing more than a chronicle, and as such loses much of its meaning. If the purpose of history is an understanding of the past and the present, an attempt at explanation must be undertaken.

V. CHRONOLOGY AND CAUSATION

A. Chronology and Causation are also factors of a historical point of view as well as a part of the historian's approach to a problem.

1. A corollary to the respect for evidence in respect for chronology.

    a. Chronology is only important as it relates to cause and effect.
    b. Learning dates or the proper order of events would be little more than a verbal exercise if they were not related to cause and effect.
    c. Too many student teachers, and even historians have tended to emphasize chronology for its own sake.

2. Every event occurring before the event which the historian is attempting to explain is not necessarily an important cause of the latter. On the other hand, it is obvious an event occurring after the event the historian is trying to explain cannot be a cause of the former event.

3. The historian's task is to pull all types of disparate events into a causal relationship with one another.

B. The following paragraphs from Professor Joseph Ward Swain's The Ancient World illustrate a typical chronological problem facing current historians.[5]

> A suggested relevant statement to be included at this point may be found in:
>
> J. W. Swain, The Ancient World, Vol. I, pp. 224-229. (beginning "A careful study of..." and ending "... 3761 B.C. for the Creation.")
>
> (Approximately 910 words)

C. In this and other developments of ancient Hebrew histories, the point of view of the prophet or historian led to a chronological and causative explanation fitting a preconceived pattern and system.

1. However, this misleading information has not prevented modern historians from sorting out a more accurate version.

2. But, this was not possible in 1600 or 1800. It is now possible because of considerable new information uncovered by archaeologists.

3. The modern historian is seeking an explanation from a different point of view. He wishes events to prove themselves as causes of later events, rather than to fit events to a preconceived pattern of cause in order to make them prove a theory.

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[5] This section explains not only chronological, but other inconsistencies developing from a desire to make history fit a pattern. The entire section should be read as an illustration of a point of view, a thesis, and chronology.

4. When discrepancies in dates of ancient middle eastern history were first discovered, some observers decided all Hebrew history was fallacious and discounted all stories of battles and social struggle. Historians have found, with the use of the recently developed "atomic clock" that a cause and effect relationship can be developed which saves much of the earlier "picture," but with more accurate chronological support.

D. Accurate interpretation of causes and effects depends upon accurate chronological data. This data in turn depends upon an "objective" selection and evaluation, which in turn can be influenced by a point of view. On the other hand, a point of view may be influenced by the observer's chronological position in the stream of history and his discipline's acceptance of earlier causes, effects, and chronological data.

Refer to the Social Studies Curriculum Center paper The Concept of Causation.

VI. HOW DOES THE HISTORIAN WORK—

Earlier, under the section titled The Historian and Process we posed several questions. We asked: How is the historian related to process? This question has been answered above. The other questions have been answered indirectly in describing the selection and evaluation of facts, the addition of new material to the stream of evidence and the historian's involvement with chronology and causation. However, the questions of how a historian thinks and works to make history should be approached once more in a more direct manner.

There is a great advantage in having the student learn by the apprenticeship method. The student thus learns the answers to the above questions by becoming a historian. He must be asked questions, and ask himself questions. His answers should be given after studying available data.

A. How does the historian approach a problem?

1. Ask the students who discovered America?
    a. There is the obvious conflict between the Leif Ericson and Columbus theories.
    b. The student should identify his problem.
        (1) What is meant by America?
        (2) Did either of these explorers reach the area defined by the student as America?
        (3) What is meant by discover?
    c. The student, having defined his problem, should next determine his approach.
        (1) What type of evidence will he seek?
        (2) Where should he seek this evidence?
    d. The student must now select his facts, evaluate them, prepare an interpretation, and present his history of the discovery of America.
2. The above was a Who question. Let the student now work with a Why question.
    a. Why did Columbus sail for America?
    b. Again define the problem. Note the areas to be covered; economic, political, religious, and social.
    c. In this case chronology and causation become more important as a basis of interpretation.
3. A What question can be presented in terms of effects.
    a. What effect did Columbus' voyages have on Western Europe?
    b. In this case the effects must be analyzed as causes of later effects. Chronological orientation of the proper roots for later developments are more difficult to establish with absolute certainty.
4. Another form of problems facing the historian is in the biographical area. This can in some cases involve decision or Which questions.
    a. The old question of whether a man molds a period or is a reflection of that period should be presented.
    b. Ask the student whether Cardinal Richelieu created a greater France or was the result of growing French power. Did Thomas Paine alter or reflect the course of events in his lifetime? Did Andrew Jackson change the American government, or did the social changes in America push Jackson into his course of action?
5. The student in each case must follow a procedure similar to the order denoted by the titles of this outline. After he has presented his answer to each of the above questions, he should be asked to try to explain the point of view from which he worked, and then to decide whether he believes this differs.

THE CONCEPT OF
SOVEREIGNTY OF THE NATION-STATE IN THE COMMUNITY OF NATIONS

THE CONCEPT OF SOVEREIGNTY OF THE NATION-STATE IN THE COMMUNITY OF NATIONS

Contrary to the popular conception that nations are as old as recorded history, the nation-state, nationalism, and national sovereignty have emerged since the 16th century. Closely interrelated, they are a constantly changing and developing phenomenon. Their emergence was followed by a steady development to a peak in the early 20th century. Having created their own limitations, the nation-states are now witnessing a relatively rapid giving way of sovereignty to interdependence.

To understand the concept of currently growing limitations of the sovereignty of the nation-state, we must trace emergence and development of the nation-state, nationalism, and sovereignty until they become a whole at their peak, and as they are now evolving. No citizen can accurately or effectively interpret international relations without an awareness of this evolution.

I. THE WORLD BEFORE THE NATION-STATE

A. The political needs of man have changed as his habitat and his culture have developed.

   1. A family in a cave or herding sheep in a semi-desert land had no need for the sophisticated machinery of government of the 20th Century resident of Manhattan or Calcutta.

   2. As men exchanged ideas, areas of common interest were bound to develop. Mutual defense and cooperative hunts for big game typified the early need for association.

   3. A cave man and woman would develop a communion of interest in the welfare of their children. As families grew, and relatives lived together, individuals had to give up some of their "executive" powers to cooperate with those with a communion of interest.[1]

B. The Community

   1. As men accepted common ideas, they developed informal associations based on ideas, which we call communities.[2]

   2. Men gave allegiance to this community. Early nomadic groups or several cave families would demonstrate such allegiance in their common struggle to provide for the group instead of just for themselves or their own families.

   3. As communities have been carried into modern times the question of community boundaries has arisen. The word boundary implies organization, but when used with relation to the community we mean the informal limits of the association determined by the location of its members.

      a. The border between two countries does not always divide people with different interests.
      b. Transylvania has been shifted from Hungarian to Rumanian control and back several times at the conclusion of wars. No matter which country or ruler was in control of this territory, there was always a large segment of population oriented with the ideas of the other.

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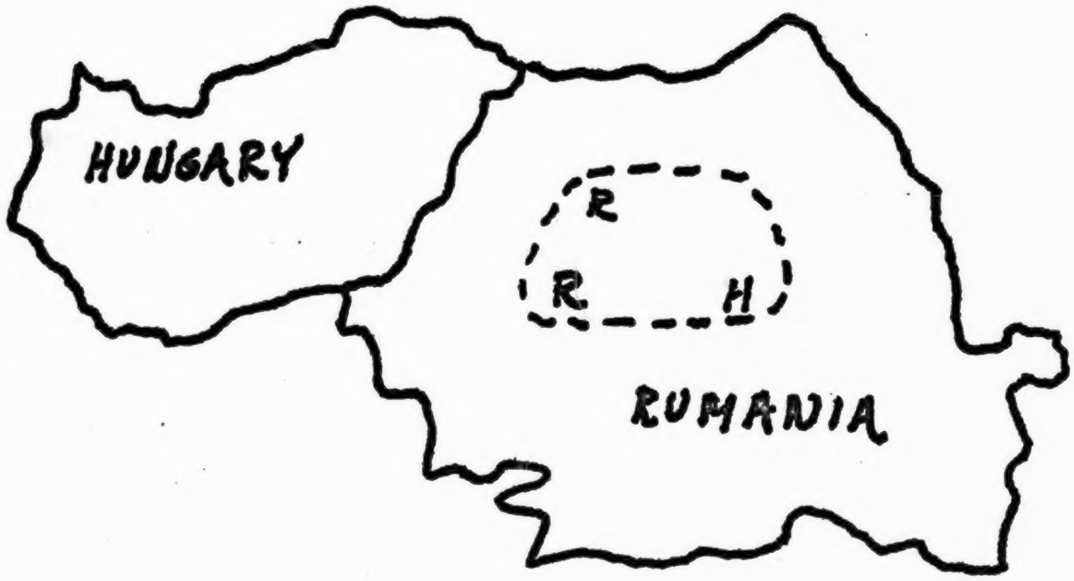
[1] Locke, J., Two Treatises on Civil Government, Book II, Chapter VII. (of Political or Civil Society).

[2] Halle, L. J., Men and Nations, Chapters I and II. The example of grass in the green field (Chapter II) can provide a basis for class discussion.



Hungary is west of Rumania. The area inside the dotted lines represents the general area known as Transylvania. The letter R represents concentration of Rumanians, and H represents the concentration of Hungarians. Note: More than a million Rumanians lived in western Transylvania (closest to Hungary) and approximately 900,000 Hungarians live in eastern Transylvania (farthest from Hungary). The above map indicates 1965 borders. In the past Transylvania has been a part of Hungary, claimed by Rumania, and vice versa.

C. The State

The community has been defined as an "association by likeness" and the state as a "formal organization." Communities may become states with formal boundaries, or states may develop associations of ideas (communities).

1. Hall employs the illustration of children being assigned to teams. They adopt labels such as The Rangers, The Beetles, or The Hot Rods, and sometimes adopt distinctive characteristics as a team or gang.[3]

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[3] Ibid., pp. 30-31.

2. Within the eleven major culture regions defined by geographers, there have developed basic units of action and reaction which are the politically organized areas we call States.[4]

3. The State emerged as an artificially created unit to act for and to protect a group of individuals and communities (groups with common ideas). It makes possible the implementations of ideas which could not otherwise be implemented.

   a. Hobbes wrote: "This great Leviathan which is called the State is a work of art; it is an artificial man made for the protection and salvation of natural man."
   b. Students may be able to visualize a giant robot designed to take actions for the welfare of man, which he cannot himself undertake, and so large he can live within it.
   c. The State can be compared to this huge suit of armor or robot programmed only to act for its master's benefit.

D. Origins of the State System

1. There was no need for, or geographical basis for, a state among nomadic families and small wandering tribes. There were no boundaries to be observed, and no need for continued relations with other units.

2. The collapse of the cities and the middle classes with the decay of the Roman Empire resulted in a rural society across Europe. Feudalism emerged to answer the immediate needs for protection of the family and their property.

   a. Large units would have been unwieldy and have served no purpose.
   b. A lord offered protection of the land close enough to his manor for him to guarantee such protection. In return the serf contributed a portion of his production and labor. It was a contractual arrangement.

3. The re-emergence of an urban society was accompanied by a new middle class with which feudal lords were unable to cope.[5]

4. Demands for protection of trade, common currency, common laws, and the secularization of European thought after the Renaissance laid the foundation for the state. The Reformation "set in motion the nationalization of the once universal concept of Christendom."[6]

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[4] James, Preston, One World Divided, p. 32.

[5] Munro and Strayer, The Middle Ages, Also see V. D. of the concept outline of Resolution of Conflict.

[6] Lerche and Said, Concepts for International Politics. Read pages 121 and 122 for a brief account of the development of the modern state out of collapsing feudalism.

- a. The Church had made western man aware of the idea of central control.
- b. The Reformation aided in shifting this emphasis to central control of smaller units. (nations).
- c. These states could implement aims and ideas of groups by constructing roads, building schools, establishing laws and courts, and furnishing acceptable currency.
  - (1) Roads and currency made trade possible. On the other hand, demands for trade dictated the building of roads and establishment of currency.
  - (2) Laws and courts were developed to resolve conflicts in order to permit the community to proceed toward its goals.[7]

5. The Peace of Westphalia, 1648, marks the formal institutionalization of the European nation-state system. (See nation-state below.)

II. THE EMERGENCE OF THE NATION-STATE AND NATIONALISM

A. A nation is a stable, historically developed community of people with such things as economic life, language, or distinctive culture in common.

Nations have existed without state boundaries or recognized governments. They have existed within the boundaries of larger units, such as the Poles, with a strong sense of being a nation, when Poland was divided among Prussia, Austria, and Russia for 125 years.

A nation, when it does not have its own united territory under an independent government, strives to achieve these goals.

B. A state is a politically organized territory; it is an organization to protect and implement the traditions and objectives of its citizens. A nation-state evolves when the people of a nation are organized as a state.

1. During the Thirty Years War the Protestant state of Denmark and Sweden and Protestant insurgents in Bohemia allied with the Catholic Bourbon dynasty of France to weaken the central power of the Holy Roman Empire.

2. The Holy Roman Emperor, attempting to retain control over the German princes and to preserve Catholic unity allied with the Hapsburg dynasties of Austria and Spain to halt the drive of ambitious French Bourbons.

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[7] See Center paper on Concept of the Resolution of Conflict.

3. The Holy Roman Empire, a symbol of authority across national and community lines, was defeated.

4. France developed a strong state which organized the French nation; hence, a nation-state.

5. England had been developing at this same time. Note the pride in being English which Queen Elizabeth strove to develop. English literature (Shakespeare); the trading companies, and explorations developed this awareness of "being English" whenever rivalries grew between the English and other people. From this organization by Elizabeth and her successors, the nation became a modern nation-state.

    a. The state became more important than the ruler.
    b. Earlier civil wars between rivals for the throne involved loyalties to individuals.
    c. Later struggles involved the type of government various groups desired for all of England.

C. The gradual development of new independent nation-states was accompanied by exploration, colonial expansions, and eventually the industrial revolution. This spread the Western European idea of the nation-state to all continents. By 1900, this was a world-wide system by which people were organized. International relations are relations between the nation-states representing and acting for their people.

1. The British colonization of India brought to that land the idea of parliaments, courts, and modern diplomatic machinery. Eventually, India struggled to develop a new independent nation-state to replace its earlier individual principalities and colonial status.

2. Sub-Sahara Africa and North America had no nation-states prior to European contacts.

D. Nationalism

It is nationalism which converts the state into a nation-state.[8]

1. Nationalism is nourished by the same associations of which communities are formed, such as common language, racial origins, religion, cultural tradition, economic interests, or territory.[9]

    a. The main unifying factor in the Arab nation is the Moslem religion.

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[8] Lerche and Said, Concept of International Politics, p. 124.

[9] Friedman, W., An Introduction to World Politics, pp. 27-28. Illustrations a-e are developed on p. 28.

b. Four million Swiss, on the other hand, are divided into Protestants and Catholics, and into three different ethnic groups, German, French, and Italian. They have in common powerful neighbors who have been at war more than peace for several centuries.

c. Modern Britain comprises English, Scots, Welsh, and Irish, with a history of hostility. The main unifying factor is the centralizing organization of the modern state which the Normans began to build in 1066. This has overcome language differences with the Welsh, and early religious differences with the scots.

A strong monarch, law courts, central tax gathering, civil service, and a national army were early strengths. Common political and economic institutions have strengthened the union still further.

d. The United States and the Soviet Union are made up of many racial and ethnic elements.

    (1) Russia has been held together by centuries of strong centralized rule.
    (2) The United States is held together by a combination of ideological, geographical, and economic conditions.

e. Hindu and Moslem forces have split Old India and created two modern nation-states. Pakistan and India. These same forces unite each of these new nation-states.

2. Nationalism creates its own symbols, external enemies, myths, heroes, history, and folklore.[10]

3. Ancient people demonstrated nationality and patriotism in their belief in their superiority over outsiders. An example is the pride of Jews in their common heritage while they were a part of the Roman empire. However, this was not then related to the state as in the later European nation-state system.

4. "Nationalism, as an ideology, is much older than the national State, and is likely to survive it."[11]

5. Nation-states are able to participate in international politics because their people demonstrate their devotion to the nation's cause. (nationalism)

    a. During war, citizens frequently place the state above their own safety.

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[10] Lerche and Said, opus cit.

[11] Friedman, W., opus cit., p. 31.

b. Despite statements to the contrary, almost all groups expect individuals to place the state above the individual.[12]

c. This is a philosophical question which is receiving more treatment now than ever before. Some demonstrations and rebellions by students and adults in nations around the world are in opposition to the subordination of the individual to the state.

6. The Idea of Nationalism by Hans Kohn is an excellent discussion on the origin of modern nationalism, and should be read as background for this part of the concept on the emergence, development, and limitations of sovereignty.

E. Nationalism and International Affairs

1. Nationalism expresses itself as patriotism when two or more nation-states become involved in any situation. Before discussing sovereignty, it is necessary to understand how nationalism (for which a state is not necessary) has developed in the nation-state as patriotism.

2.

A suggested relevant statement to be included at this point may be found in:

Lerche and Said, Concepts of International Politics, (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1963), p. 126. (beginning, "The development of international..." and ending "...if not impossible.")

(Approximately 40 words)

a. (beginning "A people's aspiration to..." and ending "... claims of other states.")

(Approximately 40 words)

b. (beginning "Nationalists generally..." and ending "... economic or cultural.")

(Approximately 32 words)

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12. Schuman, F. L., International Politics, P. 336. Chapter X, "The Making of Nations," is a good general development of nationalism and patriotism.

c. (beginning "Intense nationalistic..." and ending "...in interstate disputes.")

(Approximately 25 words)

3.

A suggested relevant statement to be included at this point may be found in:

F. L. Schuman, International Politics, 6th Edition. (New York: McGraw Hill, 1958), pp. 339-40. (beginning "A nation acquires its ego..." and ending "...are also social psychologists.")

(Approximately 170 words)

4.

A suggested relevant statement to be included at this point may be found in:

L. A. Dexter, "People, Patriotism and Power Politics," Social Studies, 34(8), December, 1943, pp. 365-366. (beginning "Nationalism goes back to a ..." and ending "...group of foreigners.")

(Approximately 160 words)

5. George Bernard Shaw has said, "National patriotism is the firm conviction that the best country in the world is the one you happened to be born in."

6.

A suggested relevant statement to be included at this point may be found in:

F. L. Schuman, International Politics, 6th Edition. (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1958), p. 341. (beginning "Nationalists everywhere exalt..." and ending "...she will embrace you.")

(Approximately 700 words)

III. THE DEVELOPMENT OF NATIONAL SOVEREIGNTY

The Dictionary of Social Sciences defines sovereignty as "the supreme power exercised by a deity, secular ruler, ruling body, or ruling class." It further states that there are three distinct spheres embraced by the term. First, the sphere of constitutional law and political science is concerned with the legal sovereign. A second sphere, international law and international politics employs the term sovereignty "to denote the independence or autonomy of a state in relation to other states." In the third sphere, political philosophy, sovereignty is concerned with relation to the source or moral authority for government.

A. Rulers of ancient nations and tribal leaders were considered sovereign. The idea of sovereign power was tied to individuals. Respect was directed toward royal persons rather than royalty itself. This situation prevailed until the end of the 16th century when sovereignty evolved as a new concept which was to be an important part of the power of the nation-state.[13]

  1. Jean Bodin, the French scholar, formulated "The first systematic presentation of the concept of sovereignty in his De Republica of 1576."[14]

     a. He defined authority as unlimited power over citizens and subjects, unrestrained by law."

     b.

        A suggested relevant statement to be included at this point may be found in:

        F. L. Schuman, International Politics, 6th Edition. (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1958), p. 66. (beginning "This power, he insisted,..." and ending "...king in a monarchy.")

(Approximately 50 words)

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13. DeJouvenal, Bertrand, Sovereignty, p. 190. This book is a good basic discussion of the evolution of the idea of a sovereign, and eventually sovereignty within a state. Also see Laski, Harold, The Foundation of Sovereignty, p. 1.

14. Schuman, F. L., Opus cit., p. 66; Also see Laski, Opus cit., pp. 17-22.

c. Bodin was writing just as the nation-state was emerging, and he, therefore, is speaking of sovereignty as a concept within a state. His statement, "All the characteristics of sovereignty are contained in this, to have power to give laws to each and everyone of his subjects and to receive none from them," illustrates his conception of sovereignty limited to individual rulers. Bodin's definition is important, however, for it shows a conception of autonomy of a ruler which is to be carried over to the nation-state.

2. Johannes Althusis, represented the dissenting view of monarchomachs in his *Politics Systematically Considered* in 1609.

    a. He says sovereignty is, "The highest and most general power of administering the affairs which generally concern the safety and welfare of the soul and body of the members of the State."
    b. "This power could be neither absolute nor supreme, since it is limited by the laws of God, the laws of nature, and the terms of the contract with the people, who remain the ultimate source of sovereignty."
    c. Hobbes picks up this contract theory in his *Leviathan*.[15]

3.

    A suggested relevant statement to be included at this point may be found in:

    F. L. Schuman, *International Politics*, 6th Edition. (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1958), p. 67. (beginning "Hugo Grotius resolved..." and ending "... any other human will.")

    (Approximately 40 words)

    a. Despite these definitions, these early writers did not believe sovereignty was absolute.
    b. The classical limitations were placed on sovereignty by:

        (1) Divine Law.
        (2) The Law of Nature.
        (3) The Law of Nations.
        (4) Agreements between rulers and the ruled.

    c. Sovereignty was conceived as capable of division, residing at the same time in the government and the State.
    d. However, since Grotius sovereignty has meant *the State is sovereign in relation to other states when it is free from outside control*.

---

[15] F. L. Schuman, *International Politics*, 6th Edition. (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1958). p. 15.

e. This latter is the foundation of the entire structure of international law.[16]

4. Students should be made aware that national sovereignty could not and did not exist prior to the nation-state. As Laski has said,

> A suggested relevant statement to be included at this point may be found in:
>
> Harold Laski, Foundations of Sovereignty, (New York: Harcourt Brace & Co., 1921), p. 1.
> (beginning "Man is of course, ..." and ending "... an unthinkable thing.")
>
> (Approximately 65 words)

a. Lords of small manors and large estates vied with each other for land and spoils. The rural feudal society was anti-centralized power. Common language, ethnic origin, and other factors of nationalism were not the reasons for organization of a feudal lord's domain.
b. The feudal domain offered protection and a chance to work land. The residents of the estate, serfs, lords, smiths, and the handful of men-at-arms might otherwise have little in common.
c. Certainly these serfs and lords did not believe in the sovereignty of their feudal estates, even though on each estate they might consider their lord sovereign.

5. Laski has also defined sovereignty as "that which within its own sphere is absolute and uncontrolled."[17]

B. In our discussion of the concept of the nation-state and sovereignty we are primarily concerned with the sovereignty of the state in relation to other states. The role of the sovereign with regard to citizens within a state is covered by concept papers such as Consent of the Governed, Social Control, and Power. We recognize the three spheres in which sovereignty is discussed, but our concept is Sovereignty of the Nation-State in the Community of Nations and we must, therefore, confine our discussion to sovereignty as defined in the sphere of international law and international politics.

1. Even though sovereignty still retains in its definition the idea of autonomy of a state in relation to other states, there are limitations which have always existed.

   a. A sovereign act is always related to consequences.
   b. A nation-state may deny any other state the right to interfere in its affairs or to stand in the way of its actions.

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[16] Ibid.
[17] Laski, H., The Problem of Sovereignty, p. 16.

However, the sovereign state always considers its chances of success when launching a polity or taking action. Its policy or actions may be deterred by probability of defeat or high cost.

(1) A sovereign state such as Bulgaria might desire to take the Dardanelles, but the chances of defeating Turkey in a struggle for the Straits are far too small for Bulgaria to exercise its "sovereign right."

(2) As stakes increase they become increasing deterrents to action and, therefore, sovereignty decreases. This has always been the case, and is an unmeasured and unmeasurable limitation on absolute sovereignty.

2. We shall deal below with sovereignty of the nation-state recognizing at all times the above limitations as part of sovereignty even at its historical peak.

IV. NATIONAL SOVEREIGNTY AND RELATIONS BETWEEN NATION-STATES

Before considering national sovereignty and its role in relations between nation-states, it appears useful to summarize above definitions of terms required in the discussion below. The relationship of these terms may thus be easier for the student to comprehend.

Community	- An informal association based on ideas.
Nation	- A stable, historically developed community of people with such things as economic life, language, or distinctive culture in common.
State	- A politically organized territory; it is an organization to protect and implement the traditions and objectives of its citizens.
Nation-State	- The people of a nation organized as a state.
Sovereignty	- That power of a state not subject to control by another state; a power which within its own sphere is absolute and uncontrolled.

In speaking of national sovereignty or the sovereignty of a nation-state, we are speaking of that sovereignty of the state regardless of where the power within the state resides (be it with the people, a king, or an aristocracy). International relations, developing as nation-states have been born and expanded, have in part resulted from the growth of state and in part have created states. If there were no nation-states, new nations would be slow to emerge. If a territory is surrounded by nation-states it is pushed to organize as a state for relations with its neighbors, necessary for the protection and welfare of its people.

A. Hegel has dealt with this as follows:

> "Just as the individual is not a real person unless related to other persons, so the State is no real individuality unless related to other States. The legitimate power of a State, and more especially its princely power, is, from the point of view of its foreign relations, a wholly internal affair. A State shall, therefore, not interfere with the internal affairs of another State. On the other hand, for a complete State, it is essential that it be recognized by others; but this recognition demands as a guarantee that it shall recognize those States which recognize it, and shall respect their independence. Hence its internal affairs cannot be a matter of indifference to them."[18]

1. Within the nation-state there are many power conflicts. These may be conceived with such factors as contracts for highways, control of patronage, or gerrymandering. Domestic issues of this sort do not directly effect the outside world. However, the concentration of power in a group or an individual within a strong state has usually been followed by attempts to extend this control to other states and people.[19]

2. Friedman has noted:

> A suggested relevant statement to be included at this point may be found in:
>
> W. Friedman, An Introduction to World Politics. (New York: Macmillan & Co., 1960), p. 4. (beginning "The pursuit of political..." and ending "...other campaigns of subjection.")
>
> (Approximately 50 words)

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[18] Hegel, Selections, edited by Loewenberg, J., (Scribners, 1929), pp. 466-7.

[19] Friedman, W., Opus cit., p. 4.

3. The development of communism in the Soviet Union has been followed by attempts to spread this form of economy and government abroad.

4. Have students read and discuss Theodore Roosevelt's policy leading to the Panama revolt and the acquisition of the canal lease. Another example is the agitation for a war against Spain and the development of the Spanish American War. Thomas Bailey's Diplomatic History of the American People offers good material for student discussion.[20]

B. Fundamental Rights and Objectives of Sovereignty

1.

A suggested relevant statement to be included at this point may be found in:

F. L. Schuman, International Politics, 6th Edition, (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1958), p. 115. (beginning "The whole structure of law..." and ending "...been recognized as axiomatic.")

(Approximately 175 words)

a. In 1837, Americans along the Canadian border shipped arms to an island in the Niagara River to be moved to Canada to foster a Canadian rebellion. This was intervention (illegal).
b. Canadian and British volunteers on December 29, 1837, rowed across the river at night. They burned the Caroline, the vessel shipping the illegal arms, to prevent further rebellion in Canada. (Discuss the elements of legality involved.)[21]

2.

A suggested relevant statement to be included at this point may be found in:

F. L. Schuman, International Politics, 6th Edition, (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1958), p. 117. (beginning "Any act by one State..." and ending "...freedom of another State.")

(Approximately 55 words)

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[20] Bailey, Thomas, A Diplomatic History of the American People.
[21] Bailey, Thomas, Opus cit., pp. 199-200.

a. Discuss with students the Russian intervention in Hungary in 1956 to preserve the Hungarian government in power against the revolt of Hungarian citizens armed in part by French, British, and United States agencies.
b. Compare the Hungarian revolt with American intervention in South Vietnam to preserve in power a minority government against a revolt of South Vietnamese citizens receiving aid from North Vietnam.

3. When, if ever, is intervention justified?

   a. According to the above interpretation of international law, independence carries the obligation of non-intervention in other independent (sovereign) states. However, the right of self-preservation frees any sovereign state to take any action imperative to preserve itself as a political entity even to the extent of infringing upon the rights of others.

      (1) The interpretation of "imperative," with regard to acts of a sovereign state infringing on the rights of another sovereign state, is the key to contemporary conflicts which have escalated to the level of military action.
      (2) Decision that an action is imperative requires judgment which is bound to differ with the varying cultures, political structures, and leadership personalities of nation-states.

   b. Contemporary revolutions are "destabilizers."[22]

      (1) "A revolutionary nation is a state in which the government has sought or is seeking to reconstitute a national society in opposition to established social order."
      (2) In the 1960's the revolutionary states heavily outnumber the others. Therefore, sovereignty is challenged by the increasing intervention in revolutionary states by the minority of states seeking to preserve what they consider the stability of the social order in which their state is most secure.
      (3) Law and established procedures appear to be the enemy of revolution.
          Ironically, the communists have always emphasized the sanctity of the most conservative doctrine of international law - national sovereignty.[23]

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[22] Kaplan, Morton (editor), The Revolution in World Politics. The material under this leading (b.) is based on the chapter by Richard Falk entitled Revolutionary Nations and the International Legal Order beginning on p. 310.

[23] Ibid., p. 315. This is well treated in Falk's chapter, which should be read in conjunction with this part of our outline.

(a) Russia experienced armed intervention on her soil in 1919 by troops of the United States, Great Britain, France, Poland, Finland, Germany, Rumania, Czechoslavakia, and Japan. This force attempted to overthrow the new Bolshevik government and to replace it with a conservative military dictator.[24]

(b) A revolutionary state which has succeeded internally in removing a formerly established social order and is or has reconstituted the national society along lines seeks every means to prevent allies of the formerly established order from intervening. Therefore, successful revolutionists are ardent advocates of sovereignty and its obligation of respect for all other sovereign states.

(4) This era of revolutions is shaking the entire concept of sovereignty.

The basis for international law is reciprocity. Nation-state X adheres to accepted procedures in relations among states because it expects this to guarantee acceptances of such procedures by other states when they deal with nation-state X.

Revolutionary states appear to threaten the social, economic, and political structure of the community of nations in which a long established state has operated. This appears as a threat to the existence of the established state. Therefore, intervention for self-protection is _judged_ essential by some leaders. On the other hand, this opens the argument of intervention as a reciprocal weapon.

(a) If a Cuban army can be equipped and trained by the C.I.A. in Guatamala to intervene in Cuba, can the Cuban government claim a right to intervene (by agents seeking to overthrow the Guatamalan government) for the preservation of itself as a political entity?

(b) Professor Falk writes: "The U-2 incident and the April 1961 intervention in Cuba by the United States contrast with the rhetorical pleas of our statesmen for the rule of law in world affiars. Thus, the presence of revolutionary nations generates a destabilizing response by status-quo nations thereby reducing the opportunities for horizontal legal order."[25]

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[24] Seymour, _The Intimate Papers of Colonel House_, Vol. IV., (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1926-28.)

[25] Richard Falk, "Revolutionary Nations and the International Legal Order." in M. Kaplan (ed.), _The Revolution in World Politics_ (New York: Wiley, 1962,) p. 317

C.

A suggested relevant statement to be included at this point may be found in:

F. L. Schuman, International Politics, 6th Edition, (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1958), p. 166. (beginning "An 'Ambassador,' wrote Sir Henry Wotton..." and ending "...solution of international problems.")

(Approximately 135 words)

1.

A suggested relevant statement to be included at this point may be found in:

Quincy Wright, "Espionage and the Doctrine of Non-Intervention in Internal Affairs," in Espionage and International Law, Q. Wright et. al. editors, (Ohio State University Press, 1962), p. 3 and p. 8. (beginning "The basic principle of..." and ending "...independence of others.")

(Approximately 30 words)

2. and

(beginning "Some writers have been..." and ending"... to rectify wrongdoing.")

(Approximately 30 words)

Others say international law is not applicable during a cold war. Still others would now like to have us believe law has no applicability to international affairs under any circumstances, and that expedience should be our guide.[26] Such positions would turn system to sovereign states into complete chaos.

D. The entire system of modern nation-states becomes relevant only in terms of relations with other states.

1. The nation-state offers protection against outside forces.
2. The nation-state attempts to secure advantages for its citizens over citizens of other states.
3. The nation-state seeks to add to the resources, power, security, wealth, markets, etc., of its citizens.

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[26] Ibid.

4. All these things the nation-state attempts in relation to other territorially organized powers.

5. The nation-state represents its citizens and defends its interests through expression of its sovereignty. But, its very definition of sovereignty depends upon reciprocal recognition of sovereignty.

V. EVOLVING LIMITATIONS UPON SOVEREIGNTY AND DEVELOPING INTERDEPENDENCE

The concept we are attempting to present to students is that the changing role of sovereignty, the increasing limitation on the sovereignty of the nation-state and the rapid growth of outside forces which actually mold the same policy of individual states. It has been said that the United States blockade and intervention in Cuban affairs at the time of the 1961 missile crisis may well be the last major unilateral action ever to be undertaken by a major state in international affairs. Note the hasty retreat from unilateral action in the Dominican Republic in 1965. The material preceding this section carries sovereignty to its peak. We must now look at the decline of sovereignty to understand the world in which we now live.

A. The modern nation-state must carefully weigh consideration of reciprocity. "We must not claim more than we are ready to yield."[27]

  1. Actually this consideration of reciprocity has been influenced by the size and power of the nation-states concerned. Relations between states of near equal power differ greatly from consideration given by large states toward small states.

    a. In 1947, the United States and the Soviet Union spoke harshly but acted relatively correctly in relations with each other.
    b. At the same time, the Soviet Union placed considerable pressure on the government of Finland, forcing it to follow policies favorable to the Soviet Union.
    c. Shortly thereafter, the United States landed marines in Lebanon, and later financed and planned the overthrow of governments in Guatamala, Vietnam, and Laos.

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[27] Falk, Richard, Jurisdiction, Immunities, and Act of State: Suggestions for a Modified Approach, an essay in International Jurisdiction by Ohio State University Press in 1961, pp. 2-3. This statement actually referred to jurisdiction of domestic courts over international matters.

2. The weighing of reciprocity is limiting the acts of nation-states more today than in the past.
    a. Communications have made the reaction of other states more prompt.
    b. Means of taking retaliatory action are more effective across greater distances, whether the actions are economic, political, or military.

B.

A suggested relevant statement to be included at this point may be found in:

Grayson Kirk, "Mass Aspirations And International Relations," in The Changing Environment of International Relations, (Washington, D.C.: Brookings Institute, 1956), pp. 2-3.
(beginning "Today is a peculiarly..." and ending "...the determination of policy.")

(Approximately 425 words)

C.

A suggested relevant statement to be included at this point may be found in:

Grayson Kirk, "Mass Aspirations and International Relations," in The Changing Environment of International Relations, (Washington, D.C.: Brookings Institute, 1956), p. 4.
(beginning "In the earliest days..." and ending "...consulted and swayed.")

(Approximately 20 words)

1. This limits the action of a sovereign state in trying to impose its will on another sovereign state whose people may not react or surrende as quickly as a king.

2. This also limits action by the first power whose people may be swayed by other than their government.

3. It is a mistake to believe this is only a phenomena present outside the "iron curtain."[28]

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[28] Grayson Kirk, "Mass Aspirations and International Relations," in G. Kirk et. al. (eds.), The Changing Environment of International Relations, (Washington, D.C.: Brookings Institute, 1956), p. 5.

D. Technology limits sovereignty as expressed in independent actions by one nation-state. As noted in A above, it is increasingly difficult to act without considering the reaction of powers we might have ignored only twenty years ago.

> A suggested relevant statement to be included at this point may be found in:
>
> Harrison Brown, "Science, Technology, and International Relations," in G. Kirk (ed.), The Changing Environment of International Relations, (Washington, D.C.: Brookings Institute, 1956), p. 35. (beginning "Clearly, in the years ahead..." and ending "...less well off.")
>
> (Approximately 65 words)

E. Population pressures and the emergence of new states tend to fill the gaps, the vacuums, within the world structure of states. There is no direction for policy to move without bumping into some conflicting interest which must be weighed to determine whether it outweighs advantages.

F. By 1960, nations such as the United States and the Soviet Union have grown so large and powerful as to create an "embarrassing" situation.

1. They must consider each other before acting. Neither can afford a war with the other in which both could be destroyed. They are actually too powerful to risk war.
2. In dealing with Albania or Panama, the Soviet Union and the United States must accept abuse they would not have tolerated in 1925, or even in 1945 (see V. A-1 above). They are so strong, and the small nations so weak in comparison, that almost any action can be misinterpreted as "bullying" or "imperialism," which can array impressive public opinion, economic sanctions, and political criticism against them in scores of nations.
3. World organizations likewise create forces against which no one nation desires to pit its efforts.
4. World markets have become too important to expanding economics essential for exploding populations for any one nation to act with total disregard to international reaction.
5. The day has disappeared when the nation-state can think of its sovereignty as a license to act with complete independence and lack of concern for other nation-states. All indications are that these limitations will increase rather than level off or decrease.

G. Sovereignty and sovereign actions are not being limited by a body of written regulations or a shift in moral or ethical convictions of cultures or their representative leaders.

Sovereignty is being limited by the only thing that can limit it, self-interest.

Self-interest faces increasing deterrents to unilateral, unlimited, and uncontrolled policy or acts. These deterrents vary from accessibility of nuclear weapons to public opinion of exploding domestic populations. The political philosopher concerned with internal sovereignty (the power of the state over its citizens) likewise finds improved communications, economic considerations, technological developments, urbanization, and mass education limiting internal sovereignty.

VI. THE FUTURE OF NATIONAL SOVEREIGNTY AND NATIONALISM

A. Sovereignty of the nation-state is caught in the stream of historical change. Not only is it limited by consideration of reactions abroad, but the policy of the nation-state is being partly determined by world economic, social, military, and political conditions. Increasingly policy itself is becoming reaction. The present trend is toward a continual reduction in sovereignty.

B. The future of nationalism and sovereignty may be limited in the nation-state, but may in turn be pressed upon larger units. Dr. Friedman has written an appropriate conclusion for a study of the concept of the changing role of sovereignty and the development of interdependence.

A suggested relevant statement to be included at this point may be found in:

W. Friedman, An Introduction to World Politics (beginning "What in conclusion, is the future..." and ending "...to put into practice.")

(Approximately 460 words)

THE CONCEPT OF CAUSATION

THE CONCEPT OF CAUSATION

The relationship of cause and effect has occupied philosophers throughout the ages. In modern philosophy we find Francis Bacon discussing this concept in his Novum Organum in 1620. Baruch Spinosa (1632-1677), writing in Amsterdam, has been called the most important philosopher of the Renaissance. His mathematical approach to ethics (drafted in terms of definitions, axioms, and postulates), is carried through his discussion of causation

These philosophers, and their predecessors and successors, were concerned with causation as a part of their search for an explanation of knowledge. Today, as in the past, only a handful of individuals are consciously inquiring as to the nature of knowledge. Just as most persons accept air for breathing, stop signs for highways, and the market economy as a part of every day living without further question, so they fail to show curiosity with regard to knowledge.

In the teaching of the concept of causation we aim to develop a method of thinking as well as an understanding of causes and effects around us. Causation is, therefore, approached primarily as an aspect of method.

I. AN ASPECT OF METHOD

A. The Baconian Approach.

1. Bacon applied the logical method of scientists, patiently observing, experimenting, and drawing conclusions. He uses heat as an illustration.

    a. A suggested relevant statement to be included at this point may be found in:

       W. K. Wright, A History of Modern Philosophy, (New York: Macmillan Company, 1941), p. 48. (beginning "He makes a table..." and ending "...we call its cause.")

       and

    b. (beginning "Bacon next makes a table..." and ending "...the form of heat.")

       and

    c. (beginning "In a third table..." and ending "...the amount of heat.")

       (Approximately 150 words)

    d. Bacon says this proves heat is a kind of motion. Where there is no motion, there is no heat. Heat also is proportionate to motion.
    e. Students can make such lists and arrive at their own conclusions. However, they should be told this is an early method which is further qualified and polished by later philosophers. It is useful, despite its weaknesses, to illustrate the scientific approach to causation.

B. Spinoza Approach

1. Causation is mathematical.

   A suggested relevant statement to be included at this point may be found in:

   W. K. Wright, A History of Modern Philosophy, (New York: Macmillan Company, 1941), p. 97. (beginning "Just as in the definition..." and ending "...has some logical ground.")

   (Approximately 30 words)

2. There is always a reason for everything to be possible or impossible.

C. John Locke (1632-1704)

1. "When we perceive one event invariably followed by another, we call the first the cause and the latter the effect."[1]

2. "We further assume some *force* or *efficacy* passes from the first into the second."[2]

3. By observation we note the existence of certain qualities and substances of things begin to exist and continue to exist due to application or operation of some other being. "From this observation we get our ideas of cause and effect."

   a. "That which produces any simple or complex idea we denote by the general name cause."
   b. "And that which is produced, effect."
   c. We find in wax a characteristic we call fluidity. This is an "idea" not in it before the application of a certain degree of heat. "We call the simple idea of heat, in relation to the fluidity in wax, the cause of it, and fluidity the effect."[3]

4. This is a theory later criticized by Hume.

D. David Hume (1711-1776)

1. Hume says for all *matters of fact* (history, geography, astronomy, etc.) we can gain knowledge of principles only through the *observation of cause and effects*.[4]

2. "When we look about us towards external objects, and consider the operation of causes, we are never able, in a single instance, to discover any power or necessary connection; any quality, which binds the effect to the cause, and renders the one as an infallible consequence of the other. We only find, that the one does actually, in fact, follow the other. The impulse of one billiard-ball is attended with motion in the second. This is the whole that appears to the *outward* senses. The mind feels no sentiment or *inward* impression from the succession of objects: Consequently, there is not, in any single, particular instance of cause and effect, anything which can suggest the idea of power or necessary connection."[5]

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[1] W. K. Wright, *A History of Modern Philosophy*, (New York: Macmillan Company, 1941), p. 153.

[2] Ibid.

[3] J. Locke, *Essay Concerning Human Understanding*, Chapter XXIV, Sect. 1.

[4] W. K. Wright, *A History of Modern Philosophy*, (New York: Macmillan Company, 1941), p. 204.

[5] D. Hume, *Enquiries*, Part I, Section VII, p. 850.

3. Logically, Hume believes causation cannot be proven but is an indispenable assumption for scientific investigation.

4. Psychologically, Hume has a different approach.

   a. Our impressions include contiguity; the idea of two events always touching.
   b. These impressions also include succession; the idea of one event always preceding the other.
   c. These impressions lead our mind to develop a third impression, necessary connection. We eventually believe two events are always connected as we never observe them otherwise.
   d.

      A suggested relevant statement to be included at this point may be found in:

      W. K. Wright, A History of Modern Philosophy, (New York: Macmillan Company, 1941), p. 206. (beginning "The supposed necessary..." and ending "...in our impressions themselves.")

      (Approximately 23 words)

E. Emmanuel Kant disagrees with Hume in The Critique of Pure Reason (1781).

   1. Believes causation only scientific way we can explain changes.

   2. By "reciprocal inter-action, we recognize that substances co-existing in space interact upon one another causally." Stones in an arch support each other, and solar system interacts to keep each planet in its place.[6]

F. Arthur Schopenhauer (1788-1860) states every change implies a cause. He believes only this makes science possible. The concept of continued change (social as well as natural science), can only be studied by first understanding the concept of cause and effect.

G. John Stuart Mill (1806-1873) has given us the most sophisticated interpretation of causation of the modern philosophers.[7]

   1. He insists there are real causes in nature; nothing can happen without a cause.

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[6] W. K. Wright, A History of Modern Philosophy, (New York: Macmillan Company, 1941), p. 271.

[7] Mill, John S., System of Logic.

2. He advances four methods to prove an observed succession of events is more than Hume's theory of an impression created in the mind. These are Agreement, Difference, the Joint Method of Agreement and Difference, and the Method of Concomitant Variations.

3. Agreement is the method where the same observable event (phenomenon) always is observed with one essential circumstance in common.

4. The Method of Difference should be used to verify the method of agreement. By this method an observer may examine two situations, one in which a phenomenon occurs and one in which it is absent. If every circumstance but one occurs in both situations, the one circumstance occurring only when the phenomenon is observable is the cause.

   Place a beaker of tap water on a ring stand over an unlit bunsen burner. Place a second beaker on a ring stand over a bunsen burner and ignite this burner. The water boils only in the second beaker. The only point of difference is the heat from the lighted burner. Hence the cause of boiling is the one point of difference.

   This is the most important of Mill's four methods.

5. The Joint Method of Agreement and Difference is used when either 3 or 4 above cannot be applied separately.

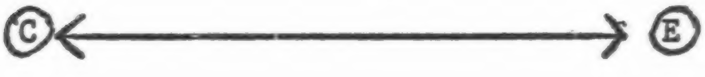
6. The Method of Concomitant Variations

   a. Concomitant (accompanying) variations (changes) can be investigated for their relation to a phenomenon.
   b. If every succession of observable events is accompanied by the same changes in an object, causation is implied.

H. The development of theories of cause and effect may be valuable to students if they try to carry out elementary physical experiments to prove each of the above philosopher's theories, and then attempt to apply the same method to a historical event or a behavioral phenomenon.

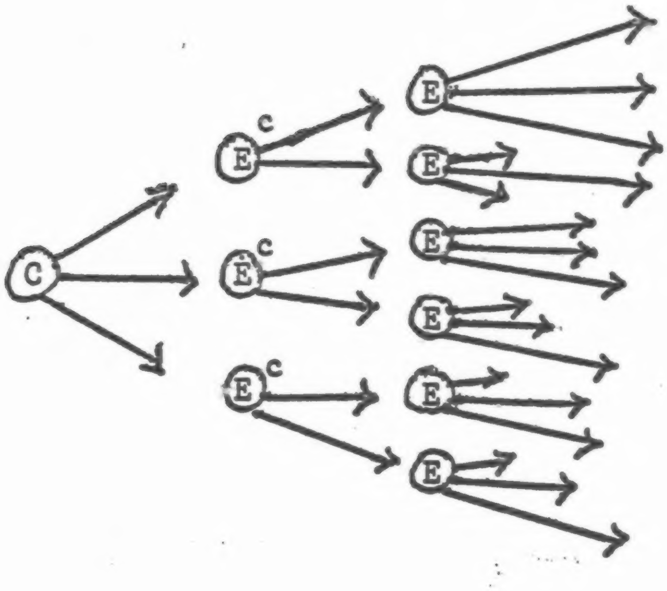
1. The student should learn to differentiate cause and effect; because they happen together they are not necessarily cause and effect.

2. Some effects may feed back as causes prolonging or otherwise effecting original cause. This is a situation possible only in a continuing process, not in an isolated event. See diagrams following:

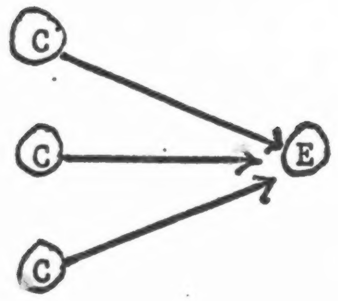


The first of the above diagrams illustrates simple cause and effect.

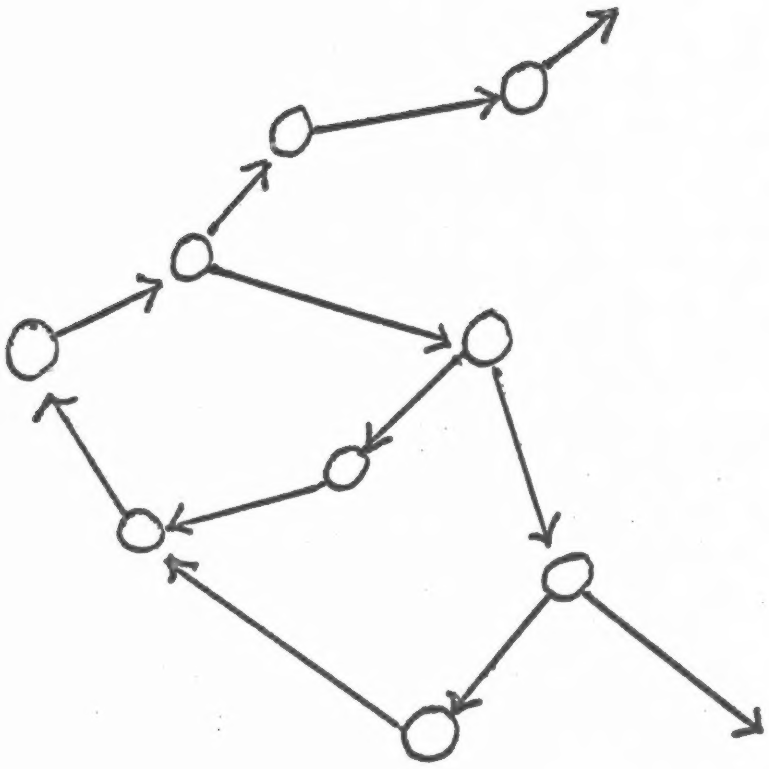
The second diagram illustrates that even a "single" cause may be effected and reinforced by the effects reflected from its original effect.



Single cause and multiple effect (billiard ball).



Multiple causes and single effect (several balls strike one) Direction will be determined by combined forces.



Multiple causes and effects in continuing change. Each is a cause and an effect.

II. MULTIPLE CAUSE AND EFFECT

As noted in the foregoing diagrams, there may be multiple causes and multiple effects. In fact it is difficult if not impossible to prove a single cause or single effect for any action. A single billiard ball striking a second ball involves the force of the blow caused by the original ball, the knap of the table surface, the angle of impact, termperature of the balls, and numerous other causes. In turn the effect is more than a mere movement of the second ball. There is also energy expended in stopping or altering the course of the original ball, sound of impact, heat and distortion from impact, and various other effects which are also causes of later effects. We could now draw the first diagram over, showing the arrow pointing in both directions.

A. Not only should the concept of multiple causation be pointed out to students, but all materials presented in social studies classes (history, geography, civics, sociology, economics, etc.) should be developed around its multiple causes and effects as a method of preparation and presentation by the teacher.

B. The student should be taught to express his ideas and to interpret materials to himself in terms of multiple causes and effects even where time is not taken to point this out. It is a necessary development in the thinking of effective voters and citizens.

C. Our description of a cause may vary according to evaluation, interpretation, or the viewpoint of the observer as to the actual effect.

   1. A couple are killed in a serious automobile accident in which their car strikes the rear of a parked truck. Why?

   2. The investigating policeman says the cause is excessive speed.

   3. The doctor at the hospital says the cause of death is fractured skulls and crushed chests.

4. An interested psychiatrist friend of the couple may claim the cause was preoccupation over an argument with the driver's employer.

5. The attorney for the estate claims the cause was illegal parking of the truck.

6. The insurance company for the trucking firm states the cause as faulty brakes and a slippery pavement.

III. THE HISTORICAL CONCEPT OF MULTIPLE CAUSATION[8]

Events within the world occur within a chain of cause and effect. This major concept implies certain events have an interrelationship. They do not merely occur in isolation, rather they are caused, and they, in turn, have effects which become causes of yet new events.

From this major idea we can derive two related elements of the broader concept. First, _causes and effects are rational_; second, _cause and effect have the character of multiplicity_. In the first instance, this means that the operation of cause and effect can be understood by men if only they know enough about the factors involved in the causal chain. The second instance (sub-concept) means that a single act may bring about (cause) several effects which seemingly become more _unrelated_ as the series of effects expands.

The main benefit to be realized from a consideration of the cause and effect major concept and its two corolaries lies in the opportunity such study affords to demonstrate the possibility of understanding the course of human events. The fact that events do not 'just happen,' but that they are caused appears to be basic to a grasp of the course and meaning of all social action. The alternative suggests an air of satisfaction with the idea that events occur at random, that they constitute no definable pattern, and hence that attempts to study and understand them are mere aimless pursuits. This obviously is a defeatist philosophy which promotes myth, superstition, and ignorance at the expense of organized intellectual endeavor.

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[8] The following three paragraphs are paraphrased from a paper developed for the Social Studies Curriculum Center by Dr. George A. Hoar and Dr. Richard McKey, Jr.

A. Viability of cause and effect is demonstrated as well as multiple causation by review of the causes of the first World War.

   1. Nationalism as a cause of World War I.

   2. Imperialism as a cause of the war.

      a. Imperialism is also a result of nationalism.
      b. It is a result of economic conflicts and a cause of further conflict. See the concept of Resolution of Conflict, Unit VI.

   3. Militarism, another cause of World War I.

      a. Nationalism and imperialism require a powerful navy and army.
      b. Belief that only the strong can win in these developing sources of conflict.
      c. Strong forces are supposed to prevent need forever. See: Resolution of Conflict, Unit IV.

   4. The Alliance System as a cause of war.

      a. An attempt to balance power and increase potential military strength.
      b. Triple Alliance vs. Triple Entente. There are also multiple causes for these.
      c. Immediate conflicts brought about by 1, 2, and 3 are causes of war as well as causes of 4 which is in its turn a cause of war. These causes are also effects and multiple effects become multiple causes.

   5. Mobilization (escalation) as a cause of World War I.

      a. The war was an accident. No one planned to start a world war.
      b. The detailed intrigue of the Austrian prime minister as opposed to the German insistance on avoiding a general war is best covered in the Origins of the World War by Sidney Fay.

c. Austria-Hungary mobilized to enforce ultimatums delivered to Serbia.

(1) Russia could not risk the time advantage the Austrians would hold with a fully mobilized army on her border. Russia orders general mobilization.
(2) Germany asks Russia to desist. Germany cannot take chance of mobilized Russia on her border and orders general mobilization.
(3) France orders mobilization in face of mobilized Germany on her border.
(4) Germany cannot risk mobilized armies on both sides of her, and demands France cease mobilization or face invasion.
(5) France refuses to desist and war results from this escalation. (See Escalation and Deterrent, a sub-heading of paper on Resolution of Conflict.)

d. Austrian demands were a part of Nationalism, (A. 1 above) which had swept Europe and North America. This was expressed in mobilization of military (A. 3 above) which was an effect and in turn a cause. Mobilization is also an effect and a cause in this chain of multiple causation of World War I.

B. Man has a tendency to oversimplify his explanation of events. His world is black and white, instead of a blend of grays. He speaks of a free world and slave states, a society of friends and enemies. Our present era is one in which this tendency has led to an age of labels. We cannot overemphasize the existence of stereotypes and the role of education in disabusing children of these stereotypes.

A contemporary example has the advantage of being in the area of familiarity, relatively recent cause, and current and future effect. Such an example is the account of the development of atomic energy.

1. The earliest inquiries into the subject can be traced to show a chain linked directly to the detonation of the first atomic weapon.

2. This event, in turn, can be viewed as indicating a host of multiple effects cutting across political, economic, military and social areas of activity.

3. An understanding of the operation of cause and effect will not necessarily provide the student with answers to all questions or problems arising out of the effects of apparent causes. For example,[9]

C. Student should note there are primary and secondary causes and effects.

1. Complexity of causation presents chief problem confronting historians.

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[9] Illustrations 1, 2, and 3 of B are drawn from the Hoar and McKey paper.

2. How can one be reasonably sure he is singling out the most important causes of an event in explaining it? (Ideally, we can't.)

3. True historian realizes any explanation will be subject to revision with discovery of new evidence or disagreement over his evaluation of evidence.

4. It is easy to evaluate evidence as true or false, but difficult to judge importance as a cause.

5. Historians must teach students how to edit experience in order to arrive at reasonably accurate explanations of historical situations. This is an art varying from the simplest of decisions to the most agonizing.

D. "A corollary of the respect for evidence in history is the respect for chronology. Examples can easily be given the student which will inculcate this point. The historian knows that not every event which occurs before the event he is trying to explain can be regarded as an important cause of the latter, but he also knows that any event which occurs after it cannot possibly be its cause. Since the historians job is to pull all sorts of disparate events into a causal relationship with one another, it is easy for him to make mistakes in chronology, and of course, this can be fatal to his explanation."[10]

IV. MULTIPLE CAUSATION AND HUMAN BEHAVIOR

A. "A crucial ingredient in a [illegible] understanding of human behavior is the notion of 'multiple causation.' This refers simply to the fact that any social occurance is certain to have a number of contributory causes. This general idea stands counterpoised to the idea of simplistic 'single factor' explanations, i.e., 'Delinquents steal because they want money.' An exploration of this reasoning will lead to questions as to why delinquents 'want money,' what else do they want, how do they decide to steal to get what they want, etc. The idea of 'a sequence of causes' or a process of causes, or the co-existence of a number of simultaneously-contributing causes can thus be communicated.

"This notion is important for a number of reasons. First, it helps prevent 'explaining' behavior by simply giving a label to the behavior, i.e., 'explaining' that delinquents steal because they are dishonest. Since 'dishonesty' is a general label for stealing and other such actions, it cannot be used as the 'explanation.'

"Children must be taught, we suggest, that people behave the way they do for a variety of reasons that are often complex in the way they contribute to the outcome. If they get this idea, they will have a built-in skepticism about explanations of behavior that rely on 'that's the way human nature is' or 'that's the way those people are' or 'it's a racial trait,' or 'it's an instinct' as modes of accounting for behavior. Additionally, they will not mistake labels for explanations. And they will hopefully be led to look for complexities in all such behavior."

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[10] C and D are developed from the Center paper by Hoar and McKey.

B. Multiple Effects

"The emphasis here is upon the notion that every action has a chain of effects or consequences; that this chain stretches out over time; that actions have consequences that were not often intended; and that these consequences occur in aspects of life that seemed not to be involved at the outset. Thus, to fail an examination may have consequences far beyond the given course; it may help reinforce a view of the child as inadequate, a view held by both teachers and fellow students; it may help reinforce the child's own notion of himself as inadequate, and thus contribute to future failures; it may be generalized beyond the classroom to his home behavior, leading to punishment and other unpleasant personal consequences. This may be a portentous example to choose, but it illustrates the point. Any other action can be used to illustrate the point that any action has multifarious consequences. The realization of the ramifying consequentiality of behavior may lead to an understanding of the ways in which we all affect each other by our behavior and are affected by others, and of the unavoidable reciprocity and mutuality in human conduct, whether positive or negative in tone."[11]

C. Behavior is caused and is not its own cause.

1. We have seen that a war or the reaction of Scots to nuclear submarines are not political events standing isolated in time and space. Likewise, no element of human behavior is its own cause.
2. Each form of individual behavior has a pattern of causes that are multiple, complex, and interrelated.

D. Examples of multiple causes of individual behavior.

1. Socialization in pre-school years.
    a. Identification
    b. Parent-child relations
    c. Family stability
2. School years.
    a. Family stability
    b. Parent-child relations
    c. Social class and parental values
    d. Social acceptance by peers

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[11] Paper by Melvin Tumin, Princeton University; Some Suggested Elements for Incorporation in Social Studies, PP. 7 and 8.

3. Use the above to illustrate both normal and deviant behavioral development.[12]

E. Multiple causes and effects of cultural behavior are illustrated by the Kennedy assassination.

  1. The development of conditions and motives for the assassination.

    a. Cultural behavior affecting an individual (contacts in the United States, Russia, and elsewhere by the assassin.)
    b. The behavior pattern of the individual.

  2. The numerous effects of the assassination on the cultural behavior of regions and the entire nation.

F. The development of new patterns in civil rights for minorities.

  1. See Unit on the Resolution of Conflict, for group opinion as a factor in conflict resolution in civil rights struggles.

  2. Note the multiple pressures (causes) and in turn the multiple causes of these pressures. Also note the multiple effects.

    a. Backlash
    b. Reform
    c. New movements
    d. Political alignments of major parties
    e. Economic impact
    f. Labor union membership

V. LAW

A. The Anglo-American law is based on many factors.

  1. Court decisions

  2. Legislative precepts

  3. Generally held tenets of society

B. This concept should be emphasized over and over in all presentation of social studies.

  1. Student must be disabused of stereotype of single cause and single effect.

  2. Judgments of simple right and wrong are inadequate when faced with multiple causes and effects. (Ends are means and means are ends.)

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12. P. H. Mussen, J.J. Conger and J. Kagan (eds.), Readings in Child Development and Personality, New York: Harper and Row, 1965.

CHAPTER VIII

DEVELOPMENT OF PUPIL MATERIALS FOR TRYOUT IN THE SCHOOLS

The actual preparation of instructional materials, based on the detailed outlines of concepts developed during the first six months of 1965, was initiated during the summer of 1965. In addition to four regular members of the Social Studies Curriculum Center Staff (Dr. Roy A. Price, Dr. Gerald Smith, Dr. Warren Hickman and Mr. Frank Teti) four teachers, two with supervisory experience, were employed to help in the development of pupil materials. The two consulting writers with supervisory experience were:

---Dr. Eunice Johns, Chairman, Department of Social Studies, Division of Secondary Education, Wilmington Public Schools, Wilmington, Delaware.

---Mrs. Verna Fancett, Chairman, Social Studies Department, Jamesville-Dewitt High School, Jamesville, New York.

The addition of these four public school teachers was prompted by a desire to produce pupil materials which would be meaningful for the appropriate grade levels.

It was important from the outset that the development of instructional materials be in line with the fundamental objectives of the Social Studies Curriculum Center. As Dr. Jerome Bruner had suggested in the eighth faculty seminar of May 1963, the purpose of any curriculum center should not be to develop a definite list of concepts which would be acceptable to all social scientists and educators. Indeed, there should exist a high degree of pluralism in social studies curriculum innovation. Instead, the purpose of the overall enterprise was to identify and define a list of social science concepts which could be adapted for use in the social studies.

With the overall purpose of the Curriculum Center so defined, it became apparent that the task involved in writing instructional materials was to determine the learnability of social science concepts at grade levels 5, 8, and 11, rather than to attempt to include in our definitions the idiosyncratic definitions of all social scientists. This basic purpose had important implications for the construction of pupil materials which would subsequently be tested at the three grade levels. That is, since the units would be tested among students representing nearly every conceivable "subculture" in America, it became important, for purposes of testing validity, to minimize, if not eliminate, the "cultural" variable. This was attempted by explicit instructions to the writers to illustrate their texts with materials and examples that would have meaning for the widest possible segment of students---rich and poor, rural and urban, immigrant and natural born.

Each of the seven staff members mentioned above was responsible for preparing pupil material for one concept for a single grade level. Assignments during this initial stage of pupil material development were:

History and the Historian	Tenth grade
Causation	Tenth grade
Freedom and Equality	Tenth grade
Changing Role of Sovereignty	Tenth grade
Social Control	Fifth grade
Culture	Tenth grade
Observation	Fifth grade

The first four sets of materials were of such high quality that they were used as models for other writers and other concepts. The last three sets of materials were disappointing, and subsequently required extensive revision.

Also working with the staff during this initial stage of writing pupil material were Dr. Eric Gardner, Chairman of the Department of Psychology at Syracuse University and co-author of the new Stanford Achievement Tests, and Mr. Richard Poole, Psychological Research Center. To develop audio-visual aids for pupil and teacher materials the Center enlisted the help of Dr. Donald Ely, Chairman of the Syracuse University Center for Instructional Communications and President of the Division of Audio Visual Instruction of the National Education Association, and Mr. Philip Morrison of the Center for Instructional Communications. Unfortunately, the project, particularly the writing of pupil material, was not yet advanced enough to make full use of the latter team at that time. Dr. Gerald Smith coordinated the work of the writers with the consultants on evaluation in identifying test items and objectives. Dr. Warren Hickman, acting as editor, consulted daily with each writer on objectives, general context, and appropriate style.

The actual writing of pupil materials involved several steps. Research within the general framework of the unit outlines was followed by the establishment of behavioral objectives and the writing of the first draft. Since the substantive outlines varied in both quality and applicability to the social studies curriculum, all writers did not follow the outlines to the same degree. The initial drafts, having been read thoroughly by Dr. Warren Hickman, were then analyzed in terms of both content and style by Dr. Hickman and the writer in joint conference. Subsequent drafts were submitted until an agreement was reached on content, style, accuracy and grade level. In addition to the text, each instructional unit included (1) a list of behavioral objectives, (2) practice exercises, (3) visual illustrations where appropriate, and (4) student bibliography.

Since there was a limit to the number of units that the psychological testers could handle reasonably, it was decided that six units would be developed initially for purposes of testing. Four of the six instructional units (*History*, *Causation*, *Sovereignty*, and *Freedom and Equality*) were constructed during the initial writing session in the summer of 1965, while the remaining two units (*Social Change* and *Scarcity*) were developed during the fall and spring semesters of the 1965-66 academic years. Papers on *Social Interaction* and the *Geographic Approach* were also developed during the 1965-66 academic year. The selection of the specific six units to be tested was based on (1) readability and (2) appropriateness for the existing curricula in the cooperating schools.

Although the formal testing of the six units was not scheduled until the Fall of 1966, five of the units and related test items were pre-tested during the Spring of 1966 in several Syracuse schools. The purpose of the pre-test was twofold: first, it served to validate the test items; second, it provided valuable student and teacher feedback on the value of the content of the units. It was partially on the basis of this initial feedback that the Center Staff decided in the late Spring of 1966 to revise the six sets of student materials in order to develop further the method of discovery. Consequently, materials formerly designated for teachers guides were, to a significant extent, incorporated into the new drafts of pupil materials. The staff of the Curriculum Center was assisted in making these revisions in the format of the pupil materials by two summer consultants, Dr. Eunice Johns, Chairman of the Department of Social Studies for the Public Schools of Wilmington, Delaware, and Myrtle Larkin, Chairman of Social Studies at Niskayuna Central School, Niskayuna, New York. After all revisions in style and content had been made, the six units were re-assigned grade levels for testing as follows:

Social Change	Eighth grade
Scarcity	Ninth grade
Multiple Causation	Ninth grade
History and the Historian	Tenth grade
Sovereignty and the Nation State	Tenth grade
Freedom and Equality	Eleventh grade

A particularly critical problem concerning the restrictions on the publication of materials in the public domain arose during the spring and summer of 1966. For well over a year the staff of the Social Studies Curriculum Center had been preparing pupil materials which contained quotations and illustrations from numerous copyrighted sources. It was generally held by members of the staff that materials by recognized authorities, selected judiciously on the basis of interest and relevancy, would enhance the quality of the pupil materials. For example, History and the Historian, a ninety-one page paper, included approximately twenty-four pages of quotations and pictures, which were the result of considerable research by the authors. Upon writing to publishers for permission to use the included quotes and pictures, the Curriculum Center learned that most publishers were not willing to release this copyrighted material for public domain publication.

Since the letters of refusal from the publishers arrived after the initiation of negotiations with a private printer for the printing of experimental copies of the pupil materials, the try-outs were delayed for two months. Rather than printing the required number of experimental copies, it was necessary to have all six units typed and duplicated. More than 320,000 pages of pupil materials were duplicated for the six experimental units (i.e., 900 copies each). All participating schools were explicitly instructed to return to the Center all copies of the material (marked "Not For Distribution") at the completion of the try-out.

In order to comply with copyright regulations, it has been necessary that all pupil materials (as well as faculty position papers and concept outlines) be revised in regard to quotations from other sources. Therefore, all quotations of more than one or two sentences, drawn from copyrighted sources, have been deleted in this report. In their place have been substituted page, title, author and publisher references. Although readability has been reduced appreciably, the pupil materials put in this form permit their inclusion in the public domain.

In addition to the six experimental units, ten other pupil units have been completed by members of the staff. These include:

Culture

The Geographic Approach

Government By the Consent of the Governed

Institution

Interaction

Modified Market Economy

Loyalty

Power

Social Control

Social Scientific Method

Since the evaluation of the six experimental units was delayed for almost a full year, most of these later papers were developed without the benefit of earlier evaluation results.

CHAPTER IX

RESEARCH DESIGN, TRY-OUT, AND EVALUATION

The third objective of the Curriculum Center was to conduct research concerning the learnability of the concepts which had been identified and of the materials developed around the concepts. This research involved both trying out materials and evaluating the effectiveness of the instructional procedures and materials at different grade and ability levels. The objective was approached by a three-step process: 1) research design--selecting schools and classes, and designing and writing evaluative tests; 2) try-out--disseminating and using pupil materials and administering tests; and 3) evaluation--measuring and analyzing test responses and student-teacher reactions to the materials.

The first step of the Center, then, was to select and confer at length with teachers who would write and teach the materials and with measurement specialists who would prepare evaluation techniques. The purposes of these conferences were to assure each teacher's knowledge of background materials and acquaintance with the Center's aims; to determine grade placement of the materials; to assess the significance of the cultural backgrounds, motivation, methodology, and types of materials; and to develop evaluation techniques for measuring the effectiveness and appropriateness of these materials in social studies.

The second step was to try out the pupil materials and tests according to the recommendations made in the conference, and the third step was to determine the learning and changes in interests, attitudes, and motivation among the classes selected. A period of almost two years was required to accomplish these steps.

PREPARATIONS FOR TRY-OUT

In the late spring, 1965, Curriculum Center Director, Dr. Roy A. Price, and Research Associate (later Associate Director) Dr. Warren Hickman, met with certain members of the School of Education, Syracuse University to examine in detail the problems they could anticipate in developing and testing pupil materials. The first problem discussed in the previous chapter, involved selecting teachers and instructional communications personnel to develop the pupil materials. The second problem revolved about the decision as to whether the teachers who would write the materials or measurement specialists should write the evaluative tests. The third problem was to decide whether these tests should evaluate behavior or content.

The problem of who was to write the test items was solved largely by the exigencies of time, for the writers of the pupil materials found that a summer was too short for the writing of both pupil materials and tests. Thus, measurement specialists from the Psychology Department at Syracuse University were assigned the task of writing the test items. The problem of evaluating behavior or content was rather uneasily solved by measuring cognitive learning outcomes. (See p.144 for the measurement specialists' report.)

While the units were being written, Dr. Gerald R. Smith, Associate Director of the Center, coordinated the work of the writers with the measurement specialists. This involved listing the objectives specifying both the important content and behavioral outcomes of each unit, determining the feasibility of assessing the objectives, and writing the test items. The measurement specialists employed by the Center were: Dr. Eric Gardner, Chairman of the Psychology Department, Syracuse University and co-author of the Stanford Achievement Test; Dr. David Payne, Assistant Professor of Education (Measurement, Evaluation and Statistics), Syracuse University; and Mr. Richard Poole of the Psychological Research Center, Syracuse University.

RESEARCH DESIGN

Through the fall of 1965, and the spring of 1966, there were frequent meetings called to discuss the over-all research design. The discussions centered on six issues: 1) which variables (socio-economic background, size of school, student ability, etc.) should be considered in selecting schools; 2) whether norms or an average result should be obtained for a sample school population; 3) what size communities should be considered; 4) what patterns of testing and replication of pupil materials should be adopted; 5) how the dissemination of materials and feedback should be conducted; and 6) which six experimental units should be selected for evaluation. These issues will be considered in order.

1. In an October, 1965, meeting Drs. Price, Hickman, Gardner, and Payne agreed that the Center must consider the cultural background as the most important variable in selecting schools for try-outs. Their point was that the materials had to be usable by as many students as possible to evaluate adequately the learnability of concepts. The size of school and student abilities were not as important variables as the cultural background.

2. In terms of results the Staff concluded that an average result for a sample school population was preferable to a result typical of one particular area. The materials would have to be aimed at the student of average ability and would have to include illustrations fitting a cultural background and aptitude consistent for all sections and schools tested. They also concluded that the concepts could be developed (not taught) in the classroom by teachers familiar with the students and their situations. The teachers would be encouraged to develop instructional methods to supplement the written materials and to communicate with the Center as much as possible.

3. The answer to the issue of size of community depended partly on the need for average results, partly on the need for cooperation, and partly on the need for controlling the cultural background variable. It was recommended that cities of more than 500,000 population be avoided, in order to bypass cultural islands and possibly less heterogeneous student bodies than would be found in smaller cities. Yet, the cities could not be so small that a valid sampling could not be obtained. Drs. Price and Hickman were assigned the task of identifying and contacting schools.

4. The issues of testing and replication were to vex the Staff and measurement specialists throughout the latter half of the project. It was initially agreed that the pattern of replication should involve giving to each teacher two concepts and to have two teachers per school present the concepts. A control section was also to be taught by each teacher. Thus, the testing pattern for a particular school would require two teachers to use the pupil materials with two experimental groups and one control group each. This required six sections per school and at least ten schools per concept.

Six sets of concept materials for testing would thereby require thirty to sixty cooperating schools with one hundred eighty participating teachers.

The actual test design employed six experimental units and twelve concept tests with students comparable in terms of such factors as ability and sex distribution. Students were then identified in terms of experimental and control groups and were pre-tested.* Two preliminary forms of each test instrument were used rather than one, longer, integrated form to reduce the time required of any one student in responding to the items. However, this also reduced the number of responses that the measurement specialists had hoped to obtain. The minimum number of experimental students (those who had studied the units) established for pre-testing was seventy-five, while the minimum number of control students (those who had not studied the units) was fifty. Thus, it was necessary to obtain for each concept unit responses from one hundred fifty experimental and one hundred control students.

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* "Pre-test" and "post-test" simply refer to tests given before and after discussion of pupil materials. The "pre-test" was necessary to obtain data on "weak" or decoy items (compared with "correct" responses) and to distinguish between responses of students who had studied the materials (experimental) and those who had not ("naive" or control) before concept evaluation in the fall of 1966. The "post-test," to be given within three weeks after discussion, was an achievement test to indicate any change in learning behavior.

5. The issue of dissemination and evaluation will be considered in detail later, but briefly the Staff regarded itself committed not only to placing materials in selected schools, but also to stimulating teachers to take part in the ferment that was occurring in social studies. This phase of the project proved as difficult as any.

The difficulty was not so much that of finding teachers familiar with the project and its objectives as it was that of enlisting cooperating schools to try out the materials. In 1966, scores of teachers attending both the National Council for the Social Studies and the New York Council meetings had requested an opportunity to conduct experimental units, but for a variety of reasons many later found they could not cooperate in the project. Principals, for example, pointed out that their school year was planned and budgeted to a point where it was impossible to incorporate new materials into the curriculum at the time of the try-outs. Other teachers found they could not afford to take the time to use the materials because of other requirements, such as Regents Examinations in New York State. This sudden loss of volunteers created serious obstacles for the measurement specialists who needed test results in the spring of 1966, to make valid instruments for later evaluation of materials.

Try out and test dates had been set for the six units already developed. It had been anticipated that the tests would be completed by April 8, and results returned to the Psychological Research Center by April 30. Because of the above problem only part of the new materials were tried out that spring.

The six units to be tried out had to be selected from each of the categories, substantive, value, and method. Furthermore, at least one concept was required for each grade level, nine through eleven.

TRY-OUT

The purposes of the preliminary try-out were to determine the learnability of the materials, to discover ways to better develop the materials in the classroom, and to analyze the grade levels in which the materials could be used, and to obtain data on the achievement tests being prepared.

Although pupil materials and tests generally were not distributed until spring, 1966, Mrs. Verna Fancett presented the concept Causation at four grade levels in the Jamesville-Dewitt (New York) High School during the fall of 1965. Mrs. Fancett used this unit, which she had written that summer, not for purposes of test evaluation, but to determine how a teacher could best present a concept in the classroom. This trial resulted in her further development of transparencies and illustrative examples promoting inquiry and discovery.

Cynthia Down, a practice teacher supervisor, was charged with contacting schools and distributing the pupil materials and tests for a trial run and pre-testing. By May, 1966, she reported that History and the Historian had been taught in the tenth grade to 81 students in experimental groups and 43 in control groups. Sovereignty had been used with 102 experimental students and 69 in control groups. Social Change was being used with 53 eighth graders in experimental groups and 41 in control groups. Test results had already been obtained from 111 students studying Causation in experimental eighth grade groups, and one teacher was committed to begin teaching Scarcity to three sections of ninth graders.

The Staff was concerned in that the number of cooperating schools and students being tested was smaller than anticipated, and feared the results were insufficient to validate their test instruments. On the other hand, the Staff found that it had a "surprisingly" large number of good test items and that much could be learned from the students' and teachers' reactions. Another beneficial by-product was the establishment of procedure for developing and distributing tests. At this point the Staff was able to anticipate pre-test results for three more units by late October, which would still afford the measurement specialists time to analyze their test instruments before the final try-outs.

There remained the problem of enlisting more cooperating schools. By October, the Staff had decided that for each concept an experimental group of eight hundred experimental students and a control group of four hundred students were needed. This required a minimum of sixteen schools with two experimental classes per school. This was a considerable change from the 180 teachers in 60 schools which had been the original goal a year earlier, but was dictated by the restrictions so many schools placed upon those teachers who had volunteered to conduct the experimental classes.

Some New York State schools were quite reluctant to offer any concept materials to students because of pressures connected with teaching Regents courses. Other school wanted to receive all materials by June or July to prepare a curriculum for the following school year. All too many elementary schools were so deeply involved in trying out a state-wide social studies curriculum revision that they had to wait another year before using the Center materials. Finally, some schools claimed too much work was required in administering tests.

By December 1966, thirty school districts had been enlisted to cooperate in the try-out of pupil materials. It was clear that even with thirty cooperating sections, purely mechanical problems were as pressing as any problems the Staff faced. Just the distribution of materials involved between 800 and 900 copies of each unit, 1,200 to 1,300 copies of each test, and 7,800 IBM test answer sheets. This task fell largely to Stuart Naidich, graduate assistant in social science, who had replaced Miss Down.

The cooperating schools, participating teachers, and related concepts are listed below:

PARTICIPATING SCHOOLS & CONCEPTS

Mr. Dennen Reilley Alfred Plant Junior H. S. 17 Whiting Lane West Hartford, Conn. 16119	Social Change, Scarcity, Causation, History
Miss Gladys E. Newell Bethlehem Central Senior H. S. 700 Delaware Avenue Delmar, New York	History
*Mr. Robert R. Richardson Office of the Headmaster Brewster Academy Worfeboro, New Hampshire	
Mrs. Charles Belisle History Dept., Junior High Canton Country Day School 1528 Market Avenue North Canton, Ohio 44714	Social Change
Mr. Patrick J. Malloy Social Studies Chairman Clarkstown High School Congers Road New City, New York 10956	History, Sovereignty
Miss Isabel Howlett Clinton High School Clinton, New York	Social Change, Sovereignty, Freedom & Equality
*Dr. Richard J. McDonald Superintendent of Schools Corning City School District 291 E. First Street Corning, New York	
Mr. John Dolan, Chairman Social Studies Department Deer Park Public Schools Deer Park, New York	History
Mr. Carlton R. Jorgenson, Chmn. Social studies Committee DeKalb Community Unit Schools District 428 DeKalb, Illinois 60115	Social Change, Scarcity, Causation
*Mr. Joseph J. Valesky Chairman, Social Studies Dept. Fayetteville-Manlius High School Manlius, New York	

*Miss M. A. Mariana Greece Olympia H. S. Rochester, New York	Causation
*Mr. Theodore A. Huber, Principal Hampton Township Jr.-Sr. H. S. Allison Park, Penn. 15101	
Mrs. Verna Fancett Jamesville-Dewitt H. S. Maple Drive Dewitt, New York 13214	Social Change, Scarcity, Causation, History, Sovereignty, Freedom & Equality
Mr. Donald Yates, Chrm. Social Studies Dept. Lewiston-Porter Central School Youngstown, N. Y. 14174	History, Sovereignty, Freedom & Equality
Mr. Alvin Gehrke, Curriculum Coordinator Marcellus Central School System Marcellus, New York	Social Change, Scarcity, Causation, Sovereignty, Freedom & Equality
Miss Adelaide DeMaison Curriculum Director Meadville Area School System Administrative Offices 1216 Main Street Meadville, Penn.	Social Change, Scarcity, Freedom & Equality
Mrs. Doris A. Mattison Supervisor of Social Studies Mexico Academy and Central School Mexico, New York 13114	Social Change, Scarcity, History, Freedom & Equality
Mrs. Lillian R. Wanser Chmn., Social Studies Dept. Oyster Bay High School Oyster Bay, N. Y. 11771	Causation, History, Freedom & Equality
Mr. Allyn J. Fisher Chairman, History Department Pebble Hill School Jamesville Road Dewitt, New York 13214	History, Sovereignty
*Mr. Daniel Alexander Chmn., Social Studies Dept. Peekskill City School District Peekskill, New York	
Mr. Harold Wasserman, Chmn. Social Studies Department South Woods Junior H. S. Pell Lane Syosset, New York 11791	Social Change, Scarcity, Causation, Sovereignty, Freedom & Equality

Mr. Cornelius Hannigan Coordinator of Social Studies Springfield Public Schools 195 State Street Springfield, Mass.	Freedom & Equality
Miss Alice B. Garey Trumansburg Central School Trumansburg, New York 14886	Social Change, Sovereignty
Mr. Mack Ryan, Supv. of Social Studies Union-Endicott Central School District 300 Lincoln Avenue Endicott, New York	Sovereignty
Sister Mary Edward, Chairman Social Studies Department Vincentian Institute Madison Ave. at Ontario Street Albany, N. Y. 12208	History, Sovereignty, Freedom & Equality
Mr. B. Douglas Ryan, History Dept. Watertown High School 1335 Washington Street Watertown, New York 13601	History, Sovereignty
*Mrs. Miriam W. Ellis, Chairman Department of Social Studies Weeks Junior H. S. Newton Centre, Mass.	
Mr. Everett L. Frederick West Genesee H. S. Syracuse, New York	Scarcity
*Mr. Harold J. Forbes, District Principal Whitesboro Central School District Whitesboro, New York	
Mrs. Ann Nale P. S. du Pont High School 34th and Van Buren Sts. Wilmington, Delaware 19802	History

*Those marked with an asterisk for some reason either did not use the pupil materials and the tests or did not return their reactions to the Center.

The chart below lists the Concept Assignments and number of students involved in the try-out. These assignments indicate the schools, materials used, the number of students in experimental and control groups, and the totals for each group per concept. Six of the thirty volunteer schools had been unable to complete the assignment for which they volunteered. In all, twenty-four schools located in eight states cooperated with the Center by using the pupil materials and by submitting test results for evaluation. A total of 4,959 students acted as experimental groups and 1,804 as control groups. Generally the number of students tested approached the number that the measurement specialists believed necessary to validate the test instruments.

It is clear that an attempt was made to achieve some geographical distribution (see map following the Concept Assignment chart) and average results. Both public and private schools located generally in smaller communities were included. The socio-economic levels differed, but tended to be middle to upper-middle class. (Exceptions are mentioned later.) Where there was any skewing of the distribution of materials, it would have to be considered unintended and due to difficulties of enlisting cooperation and obtaining reactions from the schools. Perhaps the most difficult problem for the Center was collecting the reactions of the teachers and students regarding the pupil materials and the tests.

EVALUATION

Reactions of pupils and teachers is examined in terms of both general and specific reactions to the learnability and usability of the pupil materials and the tests. These reactions are broken down further into the following categories: comments on tests by the Center Staff, teachers, and students; measurement specialists' report; teachers' comments on pupil materials; students' comments on the materials; frequency of comments; teacher-student-Staff conferences; and a discussion of pupil materials which had not yet been used in the classroom.

Generally, the comments about the soundness of the approach taken by the Center were favorable. Such responses as the following were received: "I feel the integrated concept approach [is] the way Social Science should be taught." "...the teacher who used the materials...felt that the approach was very sound and definitely could be an effective one..." "The concept idea on which the units were based was excellent..." "The conceptual approach to history is a shot of adrenalin in the arm of both student and teacher alike." "The teachers who have used them were excited and pleased..." "Most students seem to be fascinated by what has taken place so far."

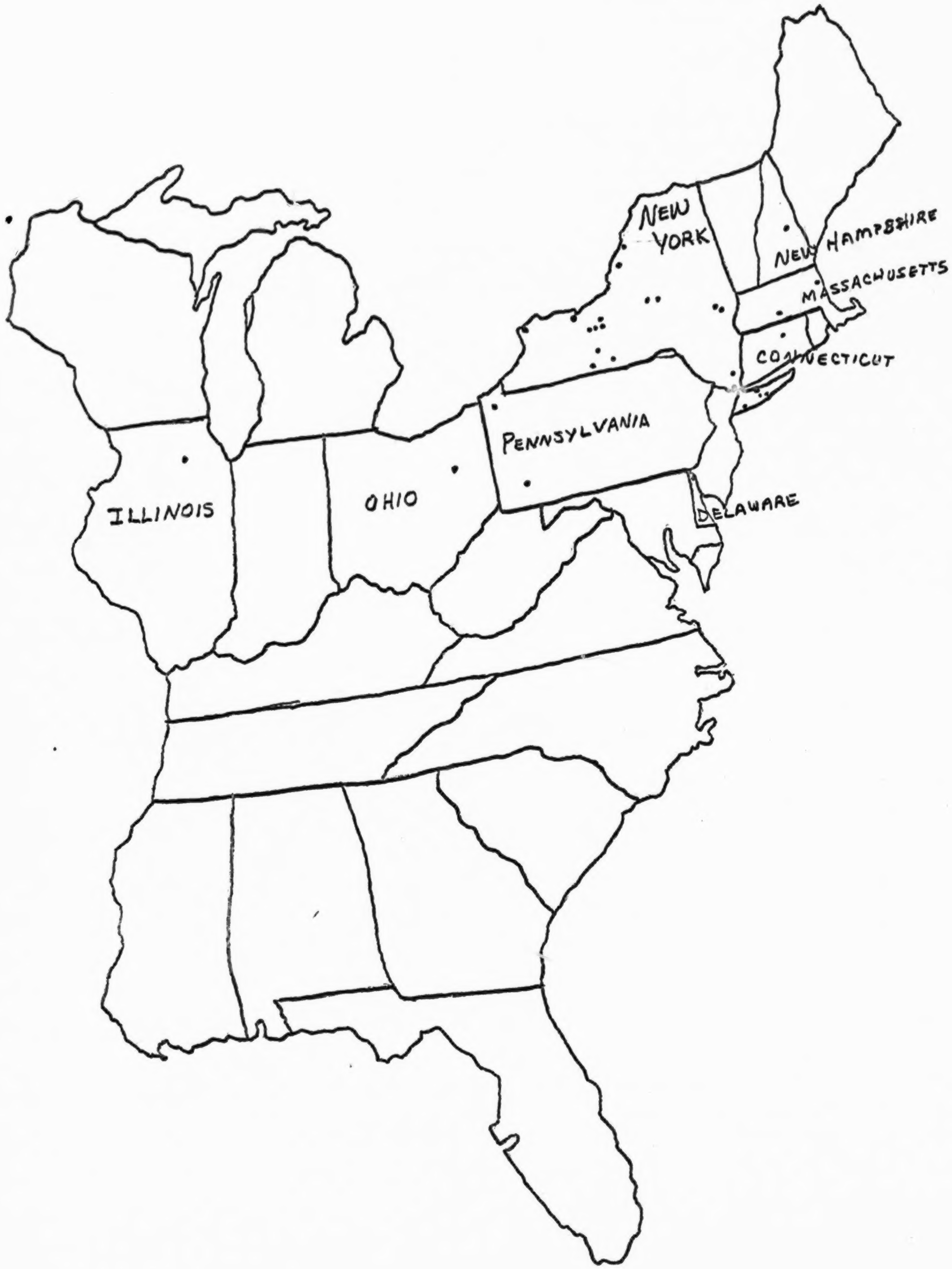
Unfavorable comments generally noted that too much preparation was necessary prior to using the materials, that the reading level was sometimes too difficult, that a greater variety of materials was necessary, and, all too often, that the tests were inadequate.

At least the Center was satisfied that it had stimulated interest in re-examining social studies curricula and in integrating the basic ideas of the social science disciplines. Also students and teachers were called on to

CONCEPT ASSIGNMENTS

SCHOOL	SOCIAL CHANGE		SCARCITY		CAUSATION		HISTORY		SOVER.		FR.&EQUAL.	
	Exp.	Con.	Exp.	Con.	Exp.	Con.	Exp.	Con.	Exp.	Con.	Exp.	Con.
Alfred-Plant (W.Hartford) CONN.	50	50	50	50	45	45	45	45				
Brewster Acad. (New Hampsh.)											29	8
Canton Country Day OHIO	15	0										
Clarkstown H.S.							90	0	120	0		
Clinton H.S.	39	21							36	20	29	17
Deer Park P.S.							65	30				
DeKalb Com. Unit ILL.	300	90	100	30	100	30						
Mr. Frederick Exper. W.Gen.,Syr.			180		180							
Jamesville-Dewitt	80	25	67	28	56	30	80	25	50	29	68	29
Lewiston-Porter							100	50	100	50	50	25
Lincoln Orens J.H.S.			42	22	42	22						
Marcellus Central	55	26	57	28	57	28			60	28	57	21
Meadville H.S. PENN.	92	26	66	31							77	26
Mexico Acad.	47	27	59	30			41	23			55	28
Oyster Bay H.S.					50	25	55	25			100	25
Pebble Hill	35		20		30		27		27		25	
Springfield P.S. MASS.			90	30	90	30					65	30
Syosset Cent.	300	150	120	60	120	60			60			
Trumansburg	59	32							48	25		
Union-Endicott									90	0		
Vincentian							53	30	48	30	68	37
Watertown P.S.							200	50	200	50		
Wilmington DEL.							22	0				
Delmar							26	22				
TOTALS	1072	447	851	309	770	270	804	300	839	232	623	246

LOCATION OF CONCEPT ASSIGNMENTS


NEW YORK
NEW HAMPSHIRE
MASSACHUSETTS
CONNECTICUT
PENNSYLVANIA
ILLINOIS
OHIO
DELAWARE

cooperate in a joint enterprise which involved not only what was learned, but how and why. The fact that the "Hawthorne Effect" was not operating is evident from the critical appraisals returned to the Center. In other words, the Staff believed that the evaluation, as much as possible, was a fairly accurate reflection of the usefulness of the Concept approach to social studies.

Comments on tests. The Center Staff, teachers, and students agreed that the tests proved the most dissatisfying aspect of the evaluation. Perhaps this was inevitable, because of the nature of the materials and the task to be performed by the tests. The dilemma was that some measure had to be developed to establish the average result of a sample school population, but this measure also had to evaluate the learning of concepts. To find average results, multiple choice tests seemed most appropriate, but these tests are generally not applicable to materials developing concepts. Concepts are abstractions which are not only difficult to communicate, but which tend to require interpretation by teachers and students. Multiple choice questions generally are not constructed to allow the type of interpretation that is demanded by the materials used in this project. Students who have worked with concepts tend to reveal understandings of materials which simply cannot be projected onto a test instrument requiring a choice among four or five factual responses. Dr. Johns summarized Staff conclusions when she wrote: "...perhaps the observations and subjective opinions of the teacher are more satisfactory in evaluating concept development than any objective test could be."

Yet, the tests are not to be condemned out of hand, for the comments on the tests indicated that many of the questions were "quite good." The tests did provide an objective measure of the responses of students who are familiar with such test instruments. They allowed the Staff to evaluate a number of items on different concepts distributed to a variety of schools over a relatively large geographical area. Tests were the most practical, objective measure, and they could be supplemented by the reactions of teachers and students.

The most common criticism of the tests by teachers and students was that the tests tended to examine facts, not concepts. Other criticisms, though not necessarily in order of frequency, were that the tests sometimes examined trivia, that the words at times were too difficult for average ability students, that incorrect responses were sought in some items, and that recall, rather than distinctions, was required by the tests.

Another significant problem was the mechanical one of administering the tests to the required sections and returning the results to the Center. Whereas it was understood that all tests results would be returned to the Center by December, 1966, some schools did not return their results before July, 1967. Some schools tested only one rather than three sections, in disregard of instructions. There were also instances where teachers or schools did not use the enclosed IBM answer sheets or cut the sheets in half and returned only the half on which the answers were marked. Thus, in part it was impossible to obtain as accurate a measure as anticipated by the evaluation consultants. Perhaps these are simply difficulties faced by any emerging enterprise, but they proved to limit an effective evaluation.

Measurement specialists' report. The report of the measurement specialists is included in its entirety below. The nature of the data and analysis do not lend themselves to summarization. The reader is alerted to the conclusions on pages 153 and 154.

Evaluation of Experimental Social Studies
Concept Units

A judgment about the effectiveness of a given set of instructional procedures or materials should be based, not on the subjective evaluations of teachers, students or developers, but on "hard data" directly related to the expected outcomes. Such was the philosophy which guided the evaluation approach here to be described. Ideally one would be interested not only in how much learning had taken place, but also in what changes in interest, attitudes, and motivation, if any, had resulted from an exposure to the experimental materials. Unfortunately time, financial and manpower limitations, did not allow for the luxury of these kinds of evaluations. The evaluation aspects of the project, then, were limited to an examination of cognitive learning outcomes, primarily of the recall, comprehension and application variety.

METHODOLOGY

Selection of Units

It was obviously impossible to attempt an evaluation of all the experimental units that had been developed. Six units, representative of the three major types (Substantive, Value and Methodology) were selected. The six units selected were as follows:

Substantive Concepts

1. Sovereignty of the Nation-State in the Community of Nations
2. Scarcity
3. Social Change

Value Concepts

4. Freedom and Equality

Method Concepts

5. History and the Historian
6. Causation

In addition to attempting to balance the types of concept units to be evaluated, efforts were made to examine the effectiveness of materials at different grade levels.

Test Development and Pre-Testing

The approach to instrument development followed traditional procedures.[1,2,3,4] In general the procedures used were as follows:

1. After consultation with subject matter experts (specifically authors of the units if they were available) lists of objectives were derived which specified both the important content and behavioral outcomes of each unit.
2. Decisions by measurement specialists regarding the feasibility of assessing each of the objectives were then made, and a final set of outcomes specified.

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[1] Berg, H. D. (Ed.) Evaluation in Social Studies. Thirty-fifth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1965.

[2] Ebel, R. L., Measuring Educational Achievement. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, 1965.

[3] Lindquist, E. F. (Ed.) Educational Measurement. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1951.

[4] Payne, D. A., The Specification and Measurement of Learning Outcomes. Waltham, Mass.: Blaisdell Publishing Company, 1968.

3. Items were written, both by subject matter and measurement specialists, and edited. The pool of items represented approximately 50% more items than the expected final forms would contain.
4. The pool of items for each concept test were matched as closely as possible for nature of response required and content, and then divided into subjectively judged parallel forms.
5. After identifying volunteer schools and teachers (generally in the Syracuse area), but with some within New York State and several out of state schools represented, the experimental units were tried out and the 12 concept tests (six concepts, two forms each) were pretested. An attempt was made to identify class-teacher units which were as comparable as possible in terms of level of ability represented, sex distribution, etc.. Experimental (to be taught a particular unit) and control (not taught unit) groups were then identified. The units were taught and tests administered. The form of the test administered was randomly determined.
6. Item analyses were then conducted. Items were selected, for the final form of each concept test, which showed a higher percent responding correctly of the experimental group than the control group. An additional criterion for selection was based on the correlation (biserial) of each item with the total score on the test. The best items from each form were included in the final instrument. Care was taken not to destroy the content validity

of each test by balancing statistical item analysis data and expected outcomes desired to be measured.

Selection of Sample for Final Evaluation

Invitations were extended to a large number of schools and school systems in the country soliciting their cooperation in the final try-out of the materials and achievement tests. Using such criteria as grade level, socioeconomic level of communities, ability level of class, and of course availability of class time, 23 schools located in eight states (Connecticut, Delaware, Illinois, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New York, Ohio, and Pennsylvania) were finally selected for study. An additional criterion of having an experimental and a control group taught by the same teacher was imposed prior to selection. Possible bias is represented in the just described evaluation groups. The sampling of schools on the basis of their willingness to cooperate and geographical location may limit the generalizability of the results. In addition, the fact that teachers were involved with both experimental _and_ control groups thereby increasing the likelihood of a "carryover effect" should be considered. It was felt, nevertheless, that the control to some extent of instructional factors by using the teacher-class as a sampling unit, outweighed other possible sources of contamination. A breakdown of the 2,839 subjects in the final evaluation study is contained in Table 1. It can be seen that in general the sizes of the experimental groups exceeded those of the control groups. All sample sizes are sufficiently large to insure relatively reliable results.

Table 1. Summary of Number of Items (in Final Form), Grade Level and Sample Sizes Used in Evaluation of Six Social Studies Concept Achievement Tests

Concept Test	Number of Items	Grade Level	Experimental Group	Control Group	Concept Total
Sovereignty and the Nation-State	31	10th	337	155	492
Freedom and Equality	44	11th	325	220	545
Social Change	37	8th	269	176	445
Cause and Effect	34	9th	190	149	339
History and the Historian	33	10th	277	143	420
Scarcity	33	9th	322	276	598
TOTAL	211		1,720	1,119	2,839

Analysis Procedures

Indices of item difficulty for both experimental and control groups were derived by relating the total number of correct responses to each item relative to the total number of subjects in each group respectively. No correction for guessing was applied. In item-test correlations were indexed by point-biserial coefficients.

Test reliability was estimated with Kuder-Richardson Formula Number 20.

Effectiveness of learning was tested through the use of a post-test only control group design. Differences in mean scores for experimental and control groups were tested for statistical significance using t-tests for independent groups. A significance level of .01 was selected for all analyses.

RESULTS

Item and Reliability Analysis Data

An attempt will not be made here to summarize all of the item analysis data. These data have been collected into six tables, and the interested reader is referred to Tables 5-10 on pages 155-161. Table 11 indicates the percentile norms for all six of the experimental achievment tests. In general the item data showed that at the end of the instructional period, more of the members of the experimental groups were able to demonstrate greater knowledge about and skill in using the six social studies concepts than were the control groups. Some items did not favor the experimental groups. Such a failure could be accounted for by differential emphases of teachers in the experimental classes on the topics or skills called forth in the items or failures might be traced to defects of the items themselves. Needless to say the item analysis data should prove to be a very valuable source of information useful from both the standpoint of instruction and test refinement, as well as in highlighting portions of the experimental material in need of revision. Similarity of item difficulty indices may of course also mean that the knowledge or skill tapped by a particular item was part of the general fund of information for most students, and therefore not unique to the influence of the experimental units.

Instrument reliability data are summarized in Table 2. It can be seen that the reliability estimates (internal consistency) varied over concepts and groups. In general the higher reliability estimates were found with the experimental groups. The remarkable similarity between the standard errors

Table 2. Reliabilities (Kuder-Richardson Formula #20) and Standard Errors of Measurement for Six Social Studies Concept Achievement Tests for Experimental and Control Groups

Concept Test	Reliability Coefficient		Standard Error of Measurement	
	Experimental	Control	Experimental	Control
Sovereignty and the Nation-State	.58	.60	2.44	2.46
Freedom and Equality	.81	.65	2.96	2.96
Social Change	.63	.59	2.75	2.74
Cause and Effect	.75	.65	2.65	2.67
History and the Historian	.62	.69	2.49	2.52
Scarcity	.74	.49	2.48	2.51

of measurement (an index of reliability relatively independent of the range of talent) is interesting. The similarity can of course be accounted for with reference to the variability of scores by contrasting the reliability estimates of Table 2 and the standard deviations of Table 3. In general, a low reliability estimate is associated with a low standard deviation, and higher reliabilities with larger standard deviations. The Sovereignty, Social Change, and History tests could benefit from further revision. The generally lower reliabilities of these tests could be accounted for by considering the variety of outcomes being measured. In general, if a variety of outcomes are being measured, the range of item difficulties will be relatively large, which tends to reduce the magnitude of the internal consistency values. Here we have a paradox, as it was desired to vary the outcomes assessed, but this resulted in a lowered reliability estimate. Suffice it to say that some caution is needed in interpreting both the item analysis and reliability data.

Analysis of Mean Test Scores

The heart of the evaluation data are summarized in Table 3. It can be seen that in all cases the mean test scores of the experimental groups reliably exceeded those of the corresponding control groups. It can be concluded with a high degree of confidence, that the experimental and control groups did not come from the same population. Stated another way, we can be

Table 3.
Means ($\bar{X}$) and Standard Deviations (S) for Experimental (E)
and Control (C) Groups for Six Experimental
Social Studies Concept Achievement Tests

	Group							
	Experimental			Control			Differences In	
Concept	N	$\bar{X}$	S	N	$\bar{X}$	S	$\bar{X}$'s (E-C)	t-value
Sovereignty and the Nation-State	337	16.84	3.75	155	14.17	3.90	2.67	7.11*
Freedom and Equality	325	22.05	6.77	220	17.63	4.97	4.41	8.77*
Social Change	269	15.60	4.53	176	12.36	4.26	3.24	7.64*
Cause and Effect	190	17.26	5.26	149	13.42	4.53	3.84	7.20*
History and the Historian	277	17.52	4.03	143	16.27	4.55	1.24	2.75*
Scarcity	322	16.07	4.83	276	10.06	3.50	6.01	51.28*

*Means significantly different, $p < .01$

reasonably sure that being exposed to the experimental units made a difference in what and how much was learned about these six social studies concepts. Despite the fact that the mean differences all favored the experimental groups an interpretive problem still exists. This problem related the magnitude of the differences. It is well known that if a mean difference is held constant but we increase the number of individuals on whom the means were calculated, the probability of rejecting a null hypothesis of no difference also increases. Our results then may reflect to some extent an artifact of the statistical procedure employed. A potential adopter of these experimental materials might well ask, "Is it reasonable for me to use materials where the average change in scores is only about two or three items?" The point being that statistical significance, but not instructional or social significance has been demonstrated. The foregoing comments apply to probably all of the experimental units, except the unit on Scarcity, where the mean difference of 6.01 items is relatively substantial. A more positive statement about the meaning of the differences between the experimental and control groups can be made. Inasmuch as the average amount of difference in mean scores approaches a value which approximates a high proportion of the standard deviations, we can be confident that being exposed to the experimental units did result in a significant change in behavior.

Generalizability of Units Over Grade Levels

A supplementary analysis was undertaken in an attempt to determine if units could be used at grade levels other than those used as target levels in developing the experimental units initially. Such data on experimental groups were available for small samples for only three units (History, Causation, and Sovereignty). Data related to these supplementary analyses are presented in Table 4. It can be seen that no noticeable trends are evident in the data. In the case of the Sovereignty and History units the "target" group had significantly higher mean scores than the secondary groups, despite the fact that the secondary group for the Sovereignty unit was at a higher grade level. Results of the Causation test favored the secondary group over the target group. These results must be interpreted with caution due to the small sample sizes for the secondary groups.

Table 4. Data Related to Generalizability of Three Experimental Social Studies Concept Units Across Grade Levels

	Target Group				Secondary Experimental Group			
Concept	Grade Level	N	$\bar{X}$	S	Grade Level	N	$\bar{X}$	S
Sovereignty and the Nation-State	10th	337	16.84*	3.75	11th	19	13.79	2.31
Causation	9th	190	17.26	5.26	8th	25	20.08*	4.22
History and the Historian	10th	277	17.52*	4.03	9th	20	14.60	3.52

*This mean significantly higher, $p < .01$

CONCLUSIONS

The following three major conclusions seem warranted on the basis of the present data:

1. Reasonably reliable sets of items and tests have been

developed to measure knowledge, comprehension, and application outcomes expected from instruction with six experimental social studies concept units.

2. Reliable differences in mean achievement test scores indicate that students instructed with the experimental units evidence statistically significant greater social studies concept learning than students not so instructed.
3. Data bearing on the generalizability of units across grade levels show no general trends and must be considered equivocal. Questions related to whether a unit may or may not be used with a group other than the one intended in developing the experimental units initially, must be answered by reference to data for that particular unit.

Table 5. Summary of Item Analysis for Experimental Achievement Test: Sovereignty*

	EXPERIMENTAL (N= 337)					Point Biserial	CONTROL (N= 155)				
	% Choosing Option						% Choosing Option				
Item	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
1	4	2	92	2	0	.33	14	5	74	5	2
2	75	1	1	1	22	.13	87	2	0	0	11
3	71	10	9	9	0	.23	70	7	17	5	0
4	5	4	76	14	1	.45	12	16	44	27	0
5	90	2	2	6	0	.22	83	7	1	7	1
6	5	3	19	10	64	.17	7	3	18	11	61
7	18	3	69	9	0	.44	26	7	52	12	1
8	7	72	18	3	0	.30	8	80	9	2	0
9	72	6	7	14	2	.16	54	0	17	28	0
10	23	34	5	9	29	.13	16	41	5	7	30
11	7	5	10	75	5	.30	3	7	16	60	14
12	48	27	9	14	1	.08	34	32	18	12	2
13	37	18	29	15	1	.13	26	33	23	16	2
14	8	5	20	65	2	.39	10	6	21	59	3
15	60	7	8	21	5	.30	56	16	6	15	7
16	5	19	34	20	23	.10	6	10	36	11	34
17	71	13	6	9	1	.42	36	24	18	20	3
18	3	6	17	24	50	.31	9	8	21	23	38
19	8	15	56	18	0	.04	12	13	47	25	4
20	7	37	5	19	33	.31	7	28	8	13	44
21	11	9	21	58	1	.29	13	18	23	45	1
22	21	21	13	43	1	.39	18	30	20	28	2
23	52	15	21	11	1	.32	43	17	26	14	1
24	5	1	33	50	10	.01	10	2	47	23	16
25	25	12	13	48	2	.33	28	14	18	37	3
26	7	5	83	5	0	.43	9	7	79	5	1
27	10	73	7	10	0	.34	21	49	10	19	1
28	27	13	37	21	1	.21	39	22	21	14	1
29	25	28	40	6	1	.25	43	12	37	7	1
30	1	3	4	49	43	.46	4	7	8	12	68
31	26	11	25	37	0	.21	32	18	17	29	1

*Note: Underlined alternatives represent keyed answers

Table 6. Summary of Item Analysis for Experimental Achievement Test: Freedom and Equality*

	EXPERIMENTAL (N- 325)					Point Biserial	CONTROL (N= 220)				
	% Choosing Option						% Choosing Option				
Item	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
1	2	8	9	81	0	.38	8	14	13	64	0
2	19	10	35	35	0	.06	29	11	13	46	0
3	60	8	23	8	0	.34	50	12	29	8	0
4	17	7	47	28	0	.17	20	8	54	16	0
5	42	15	31	12	0	.51	36	25	16	19	1
6	30	11	10	48	0	.27	35	8	10	44	2
7	22	53	9	15	0	.41	19	44	16	20	1
8	70	7	12	8	1	.32	48	17	25	7	0
9	11	22	7	60	0	.52	8	27	10	52	1
10	6	62	1	31	0	.43	8	56	1	33	1
11	10	13	31	46	0	.43	13	21	38	28	1
12	10	10	61	19	0	.30	9	16	52	20	1
13	34	37	13	17	0	.39	55	18	9	17	0
14	74	4	4	18	0	.35	63	7	2	26	0
15	3	82	12	3	0	.21	3	77	9	9	0
16	24	11	58	6	1	.13	21	9	55	15	1
17	15	36	10	38	1	.41	22	35	7	35	1
18	37	4	49	9	0	.44	17	9	68	5	0
19	25	35	37	3	0	.24	41	17	37	5	0
20	22	4	48	25	0	.37	38	11	25	25	1
21	18	31	24	26	1	.43	18	20	41	21	1
22	52	15	15	16	0	.31	37	12	16	33	1
23	22	19	48	11	0	.46	32	20	27	21	0
24	26	37	5	31	1	.05	23	30	8	36	1
25	11	18	10	60	1	.48	14	31	18	37	0
26	1	16	77	6	0	.27	5	26	62	6	1
27	74	10	11	4	0	.33	74	6	14	6	0
28	23	1	9	66	0	.22	23	3	9	64	0
29	17	63	10	9	0	.12	13	66	11	10	1
30	51	7	9	33	0	.38	50	5	11	34	1
31	16	37	21	24	0	.45	20	21	30	27	1
32	11	5	60	23	1	.35	15	7	47	28	1
33	47	8	15	31	0	.33	31	12	18	38	1
34	3	5	88	3	0	.05	3	5	87	3	1
35	6	20	62	12	0	.39	11	24	43	20	1
36	12	55	21	11	0	.51	20	45	19	13	1
37	9	68	13	9	0	.14	12	52	17	16	1
38	18	21	34	25	0	.29	15	24	31	29	0
39	17	52	27	4	0	.43	26	53	17	3	1
40	9	3	6	7	74	.13	6	6	4	11	71
41	1	21	1	76	1	.17	3	17	2	77	0
42	12	13	42	32	0	.45	21	14	24	40	1
43	6	5	34	54	0	.50	9	11	51	28	0
44	7	68	15	7	1	.42	9	60	16	12	0

*Note: Underlined alternatives represent keyed answers

Table 7. Summary of Item Analysis for Experimental Achievement Test: Social Change* (Revised)

	EXPERIMENTAL (N= 269)					Point Biserial	CONTROL (N= 176)				
	% Choosing Option						% Choosing Option				
Item	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
1	19	68	5	8	0	.38	42	32	14	9	3
2	30	19	31	13	7	.37	29	30	25	11	5
3	46	3	24	22	6	.20	39	11	6	39	3
4	4	4	36	36	21	.19	5	5	27	35	28
5	9	20	50	3	19	.18	9	22	47	5	17
6	2	71	5	1	22	.32	3	59	9	2	26
7	4	6	9	72	9	.40	2	12	15	61	7
8	9	6	10	8	68	.34	9	10	6	10	64
9	51	3	6	2	39	.19	51	2	2	2	42
10	26	12	12	4	47	.42	36	24	11	3	24
11	2	82	3	6	8	.26	17	34	8	22	18
12	12	16	47	17	9	.20	10	14	42	22	11
13	7	10	5	68	10	.32	6	8	10	61	14
14	11	42	25	8	14	.22	13	46	21	6	14
15	19	13	9	12	48	.29	15	18	10	17	39
16	28	22	12	12	26	.23	22	17	15	15	31
17	4	43	16	14	22	.39	11	24	23	16	25
18	15	6	6	17	57	.04	10	10	6	26	48
19	3	8	51	35	4	.14	9	10	52	20	8
20	30	32	1	21	16	.12	35	22	2	19	22
21	11	1	2	6	80	.37	13	4	6	7	70
22	19	5	55	11	10	.27	22	11	45	15	6
23	4	45	39	2	9	.34	6	34	46	7	7
24	8	12	10	60	9	.50	14	18	23	38	5
25	16	25	34	12	13	.18	17	21	19	34	8
26	73	10	6	5	7	.49	57	12	10	10	10
27	5	5	3	9	78	.36	6	7	5	16	66
28	28	4	34	10	23	.19	14	6	27	19	32
29	32	8	7	8	44	.20	24	13	9	5	48
30	4	19	19	10	47	.49	3	19	24	10	40
31	20	16	10	39	15	.24	11	14	11	40	21
32	42	6	9	18	22	.23	35	10	13	17	23
33	17	7	19	15	41	.29	17	15	14	13	38
34	69	10	5	11	4	.41	56	7	14	16	4
35	13	41	16	7	21	.33	13	31	23	11	18
36	13	5	21	53	6	.50	18	9	25	35	10
37	26	8	35	20	7	.32	28	13	18	26	10

*Note: Underlined alternatives represent keyed answers

Table 8. Summary of Item Analysis for Experimental Achievement Test: Cause and Effect*

	EXPERIMENTAL (N= 190)					Point Biserial	CONTROL (N= 149)				
	% Choosing Option						% Choosing Option				
Item	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
1	5	14	75	4	1	.29	3	22	71	3	1
2	57	31	2	8	1	.19	59	27	2	11	1
3	23	65	5	5	2	.54	19	42	23	15	1
4	3	77	1	2	16	.22	16	54	5	1	23
5	20	5	21	52	3	.44	21	22	19	36	3
6	73	6	6	5	9	.40	51	8	12	3	25
7	16	8	36	38	1	.27	22	9	31	38	1
8	35	16	32	13	4	.27	40	22	26	11	1
9	71	15	7	5	2	.48	56	21	11	10	2
10	26	4	5	65	1	.32	26	7	4	63	0
11	22	40	19	18	1	.16	23	35	19	22	1
12	13	60	10	16	1	.44	25	30	11	32	3
13	6	13	7	72	2	.36	12	26	8	54	0
14	15	56	17	11	1	.33	13	50	27	9	1
15	15	45	17	21	1	.14	13	36	23	26	1
16	10	21	24	45	1	.15	20	20	33	24	1
17	3	31	5	60	1	.44	7	41	10	41	1
18	4	11	38	43	4	.25	12	12	25	48	3
19	4	62	13	22	0	.26	4	57	14	24	1
20	10	5	5	61	18	.31	13	14	15	42	15
21	8	18	21	25	28	.20	12	13	27	20	28
22	11	17	4	10	59	.46	6	25	5	15	48
23	11	55	21	13	1	.40	11	45	23	19	1
24	4	20	37	3	37	.22	11	36	30	1	21
25	41	19	11	29	1	.34	22	33	12	31	1
26	5	33	10	51	1	.35	13	31	15	40	1
27	21	13	56	9	1	.32	18	19	38	24	0
28	16	21	8	55	1	.35	21	30	17	32	1
29	44	4	16	36	0	.32	39	4	17	36	2
30	54	8	25	13	0	.34	43	10	34	11	0
31	14	51	18	15	2	.50	13	33	23	30	0
32	21	13	17	48	1	.36	22	17	19	38	1
33	17	15	14	53	0	.23	12	12	21	52	0
34	27	10	31	27	2	.28	30	15	22	28	1

*Note: Underlined alternatives represent keyed answers

Table 9. Summary of Item Analysis for Experimental Achievement Test: History and the Historian*

	EXPERIMENTAL (N= 277) % Choosing Option					Point Biserial	CONTROL (N= 143) % Choosing Option				
Item	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
1	14	1	5	79	1	.06	18	3	4	74	1
2	3	7	0	89	0	.18	6	6	1	86	0
3	51	4	13	30	0	.46	23	11	19	46	0
4	7	54	5	33	1	.23	5	56	8	30	0
5	77	16	2	4	0	.02	56	26	6	12	0
6	3	83	7	7	0	.32	2	68	19	11	1
7	44	12	9	35	0	.19	38	18	13	32	0
8	3	66	19	12	0	.46	1	62	25	11	0
9	10	4	83	3	0	.34	17	4	78	1	0
10	16	21	27	35	1	.00	10	18	35	36	1
11	17	12	4	68	0	.35	11	16	6	67	0
12	80	3	12	1	4	.43	59	8	22	3	8
13	4	4	63	30	0	.24	4	2	71	24	0
14	32	52	8	7	0	.12	45	38	10	7	1
15	9	16	4	70	1	.12	8	25	8	58	1
16	74	4	7	7	8	.38	64	8	11	10	7
17	71	3	18	8	1	.32	62	5	20	13	0
18	28	36	13	22	1	.06	34	42	15	8	0
19	4	5	28	62	1	.40	4	11	26	58	1
20	24	3	0	3	71	.39	24	3	1	4	68
21	31	17	26	26	0	.32	38	11	32	18	2
22	7	20	51	23	0	.19	6	25	45	25	0
23	39	18	17	25	0	.36	32	20	24	24	0
24	12	4	15	4	65	.29	13	1	11	4	71
25	7	3	53	14	23	.37	8	8	50	16	18
26	30	1	14	55	1	.23	25	3	13	57	1
27	3	55	4	10	28	.32	9	50	5	8	28
28	2	4	1	2	91	.33	1	5	1	5	87
29	5	4	82	8	1	.38	13	12	65	10	1
30	21	9	37	33	1	.18	19	18	39	34	1
31	57	12	7	23	1	.30	59	11	9	20	1
32	75	12	4	9	1	.38	64	14	8	13	1
33	3	20	12	65	1	.35	6	18	8	65	2

*Note: Underlined alternatives represent keyed answers

Table 10. Summary of Item Analysis for Experimental Achievement Test: Scarcity

	EXPERIMENTAL (N= 322)					Point Biserial	CONTROL (N= 276)				
	% Choosing Option						% Choosing Option				
Item	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
1	18	10	52	19	0	.33	19	21	12	47	1
2	59	21	6	1	13	.35	57	8	12	2	20
3	3	3	19	74	1	.23	4	8	45	42	0
4	43	19	12	19	6	.22	38	20	16	15	10
5	29	45	7	16	4	.47	45	8	7	35	4
6	3	2	94	1	0	.26	5	5	86	2	2
7	8	52	11	27	3	.41	11	28	33	25	2
8	4	2	8	2	84	.21	3	5	14	8	70
9	37	15	31	15	2	.50	18	23	41	15	4
10	17	33	29	22	0	.21	16	23	23	37	1
11	15	8	12	6	60	.38	17	12	12	17	42
12	27	20	37	15	2	.29	33	15	20	29	1
13	10	24	25	39	2	.09	14	9	58	17	1
14	2	87	6	5	0	.27	5	68	20	7	0
15	62	3	2	18	15	.34	33	13	6	17	31
16	5	1	67	6	21	.42	4	3	44	6	42
17	78	5	9	8	1	.51	41	10	37	11	1
18	22	26	18	34	1	.36	27	37	12	21	3
19	4	77	13	4	1	.45	5	54	30	9	1
20	8	5	14	5	69	.46	15	6	24	15	41
21	1	2	4	92	1	.28	2	8	7	82	1
22	67	3	7	23	1	.46	50	8	9	32	1
23	2	0	86	12	1	.20	13	5	50	31	1
24	3	13	17	64	3	.41	7	20	22	50	1
25	7	3	3	15	73	.46	20	7	4	18	51
26	8	7	29	55	2	.38	6	12	44	37	1
27	53	2	10	26	9	.20	41	8	19	16	16
28	3	52	2	3	40	.32	6	32	9	7	46
29	8	7	26	57	2	.47	12	5	51	29	2
30	8	6	49	37	0	.33	9	8	38	41	3
31	46	6	16	30	2	.16	40	11	15	30	3
32	34	32	6	26	1	.26	40	18	6	33	0
33	8	7	7	71	6	.53	14	14	14	51	5

Table 11. Percentile Norms (Experimental Groups) For Six Experimental Social Studies Concept Achievement Tests*

	TEST					
Raw Score	Sovereignty and the Nation State	Freedom and Equality	Social Change	Cause and Effect	History and the Historian	Scarcity
39+		99				
38		99				
37		99				
36		97				
35		96				
34		94				
33		92				
32		90				
31		89				
30		87			99	
29		84		99	99	
28		80		99	99	
27		77	99	98	99	
26	99	72	99	97	99	99
25	99	67	99	93	97	99
24	98	62	97	89	96	96
23	96	57	96	85	93	93
22	92	52	93	79	88	99
21	86	48	88	73	82	82
20	78	43	81	67	73	76
19	70	37	75	61	63	69
18	62	31	67	55	52	62
17	52	26	59	48	42	56
16	40	21	52	41	33	48
15	30	16	46	33	25	41
14	21	11	39	27	18	35
13	14	7	31	23	12	29
12	10	4	23	17	8	22
11	6	3	16	12	6	18
10	4	2	12	8	5	13
9	3	1	8	6	3	8
8	2	1	5	5	2	5
7	1	1	3	4	1	3
6	1		1	2	1	1
5	1		1	1	1	1
4				1	1	1
3						1
2						1
No. of Items	31	44	37	34	33	33
Mean	16.84	22.05	15.60	17.26	17.52	16.06
Standard Deviation	3.75	6.77	4.53	5.26	4.03	4.83
N	337	325	269	190	277	322

*Note: Percentile Ranks have been rounded to nearest integral values

Teacher Comment. Teacher responses to pupil materials varied considerably although in general describing the pupil materials as acceptable. These responses noted the anticipated difficulties stemming from individual differences in ability and preparation of both teachers and pupils, as well as from the differing cultural backgrounds of classes. A further anticipated problem which was remarked by several teachers resulted from the variety of writing styles found in the pupil materials.

Considerable attention had been given to the selection of schools. As noted above, an attempt had been made to select "average" student bodies in communities lacking "cultural islands." Despite this screening and selection process, there was a remarkable variety of backgrounds to be found within the cooperating schools. The teacher comments listed in the following tables reflect these more obvious difficulties which confronted the writers of the pupil materials. Obviously, a more effective method must be developed to cope with these differences than merely inserting a variety of illustrations within one conceptual unit.

TABLE OF FREQUENCY OF TEACHERS' COMMENTS
(Credits)

	Mexico	Meadville	Pebble Hill	Clinton	Oyster Bay	Trumansburg	Deer Park	Union-Endicott	Springfield
1. Approve of Concept Approach.	X	X	X		X		X	X	X
2. Students enjoyed this approach.	X	X	X		X				X
3. Material as written was effective teaching device.	X	X	X				X		
4. Concept Approach evoked more student response than traditional approach.	X	X	X						
5. Material met objectives cited at end of units.	X		X						
6. Teachers especially liked materials as written.	X	X							
7. Students applied conceptual understandings outside of classroom.	X								
8. Practice exercises were particularly useful			X						
9. While enjoying this approach, students would not like a "steady diet" of it.		X						X	

TABLE OF FREQUENCY OF TEACHERS' COMMENTS
(Debits)

	Mexico	Meadville	Pebble Hill	Clinton	Oyster Bay	Trumansburg	Deer Park	Union-Endicott	Springfield
1. Great Preparation required prior to use of units.	X	X			X			X	
2. Teacher orientation also required prior to use of units.	X	X			X			X	
3. Reading level too difficult.	X	X			X		X		X
4. Student backgrounds too weak for total receptivity to material.		X			X	X			
5. Quoted excerpts should be updated.	X								
6. Greater variety of material needed.	X	X			X	X		X	
7. More time needed for teaching units.	X				X	X			
8. More meaningful definitions should be used.	X			X					
9. Objective tests were inadequate (tested facts only)	X	X	X	X			X		
10. Units should be shorter for more effective teaching.								X	

Student Comments. Student responses tended to favor the quality of writing demonstrated in the pupil materials. However, the Center was not established to develop writing techniques. Rather, its objective was to determine whether or not social studies pupils could develop concepts from units prepared for their study.

In one school, the thirty-two students who worked with the unit on Sovereignty and the Nation-State expressed, at worst, only a few qualified criticisms. They ranged from "This unit gave me a better understanding of how the world is made up" to "The subjects covered...were not entirely new, but I don't think that we have ever looked at them from this point of view." One of the more perceptive students believed that he had found an inconsistency in the use of one of the terms in the pupil materials. A later interview with this student corrected this misconception but at the same time demonstrated how thoroughly that student had studied his unit, even to the point of seeking sources to support his contention. Interviews with dozens of students and teachers confirmed this tendency for students to study conceptual material more thoroughly than they had been studying their textbooks. Within the limited scope of the experiment, it was not possible to determine how much this reflected the Hawthorne effect.

In reviewing comments from a group of fifty-four students who had completed the unit on Social Change, the staff found only one student who saw no purpose in the conceptual approach. His comment; "It stinks, beside that is all right [sic]," left little doubt as to his opinion. Generally, however, students appeared to feel that the unit was more than simply novel, that it actually encouraged individual thought and participation. Comments on Causation likewise were as candid as varied. Most frequent were the comments that the unit "made me think," "made me aware," "made me search," and "I could use this material in other subjects."

Very few student criticisms were aimed at the conceptual approach, the objectives of the pupil materials, or the method of their presentation. Instead, their criticisms appeared to be centered around the difficulties resulting from new vocabulary and the length of the units. These comments occurred with sufficient frequency to indicate the need for shorter, more simply presented units. Again, it should be noted that there was no way to determine that all experimental classes would have exactly the same pre-requisite background in the social sciences before beginning study of a conceptual unit. Therefore, it was necessary to include numerous definitions, illustrations, and often repetition of background material studied earlier in the course. This criticism is important in terms of preparing units for widespread use. However, within the scope of the Center's work, the comments on vocabulary and length of units were considered minor when viewed against the objectives of the Center, which were to develop concepts and to determine whether or not they were teachable and learnable. The preparation of pupil materials was only a part of the process of determining teachability and learnability. The pupil materials were not in themselves a goal of the project. For this reason, writers were well aware before they sent their materials to the schools that this latter type of criticism would occur.

Further comments by students concerning pupil materials noted that examples and illustrations were not as relevant to the students as the writers had hoped. Comments indicated that the problem of dealing with vocabulary levels was even more difficult than had been anticipated. For example, some teachers had requested permission to try out the pupil units with honors classes or above average classes, as well as with one or two slow learning classes, in addition to their experimental units. These honors classes or above average classes resented the fact that some language appeared too simple for their more sophisticated taste. In a suburb of Syracuse, New York, students of one private school were pleased with and impressed by the units they used. They believed the units well written, instructive, and highly interesting. By comparison, students a few miles away, but much farther removed in intellectual level, found these same units much "too deep," "tedious," and less enjoyable than textbook units covered in other years.

Upon a review of all the comments written by students, as well as the notes taken during interviews and conferences with individual students and groups of students, the staff concluded that the concentration of criticism on such things as the readability of the pupil materials actually was a positive response to the overall experiment. Very few students commented adversely on the conceptual approach. In almost all cases, the comments on readability, vocabulary, length, and illustrations were offered as criticisms of what the students considered a far more interesting approach to teaching than that to which they had been previously exposed. In this sense, a Center objective had been achieved. Pupil materials, as noted above, were not a goal, but a necessary means of presenting concepts for controlled experiments in teaching. These experiments, as Dr. Payne's report has indicated, proved beyond doubt that the students could successfully develop social science concepts.

Teacher-Student-Staff Conferences. By the early spring of 1967, the staff was confronted by an extremely wide variety of student and teacher comments. Some comments were gross generalizations, requiring further investigation. Unfortunately, there was also an embarrassing and frustrating absence of comment from certain cooperating schools. At this point Mr. Stuart Naidich assisted Dr. Hickman in setting up conferences in several schools to facilitate in-depth evaluation. Both students and teachers who had used the Center materials attended these conferences, from which the Staff obtained some excellent notes, which in turn became guidelines for preparing later units and tests.

A most successful conference was held in the small upstate Mexico, New York, Academy and Central School. Mrs. Doris A. Mattison, Supervisor of Social Studies, was particularly helpful. She and her colleagues offered suggestions for incorporating conceptual units into the regular curriculum and for further motivating students in the study of conceptual units. These suggestions involved the use of abstractions in classes which were generally fact-oriented. In emphasizing her belief in the importance of these abstractions, Mrs. Mattison, whose pupils had studied the concept of Freedom and Equality, commented: "For the first time in their lives, I think, my students recognized freedom as a meaningful symbol -- a word that we use to designate a condition of man. They began to see it less as a vague 'absolute good' and more as an indication of the number of alternatives in a given situation."

Again, in these conferences, the Staff faced frequent suggestions for the improvement of pupil materials, rather than any suggestions for changes of definition of concepts. Typical suggestions were:

1. "Update excerpts, yet strike a balance between historic and recent commentaries on American values."

2. "Orient teachers to the units."

3. "Add more audiovisual materials to the units."

4. "Relate the concepts to the regular curricula of the schools where possible."

The most telling criticism evolving from all conferences and interviews pertained to the testing instruments designed to evaluate the learnability and teachability of the concepts. Both teachers and students believed there were too many factual answers required to permit individual differences in the use of pupil materials by teachers or classes, or to permit a true measurement of the understanding of concepts by the control groups.

An incident during a conference with students and teachers at the Marcellus (N. Y.) Central School lent support to an earlier suspicion of the Center staff that students and even teachers had perhaps underrated their own response to the pupil materials. One Marcellus student, quite outspoken, announced that he had gained no understanding of sovereignty or other related concepts in studying the unit, Sovereignty and the Nation-State. However, when carefully questioned, this student defined each of seven sub-concepts and the major concept included in the pupil material in the same manner in which these concepts had been defined by the Center staff. Furthermore, the student was capable of explaining relationship of sovereignty of the nation-state to current world situations. This student demonstrated a comprehensive knowledge which he had not realized he possessed, and which he did not believe had been tested in the formal evaluation of the experiment.

Communication gaps, not only between adult writers and secondary school pupils but between various grade levels in the secondary school, pose a problem for writers of pupil materials. This gap and its accompanying problems was illustrated by an incident during Dr. Hickman's interview with Marcellus' students. A girl and a boy agreed that illustrations in a certain unit were not meaningful. They noted one example of a description of a fight being precipitated by students "bucking" a cafeteria line. Whereas this had been received as an appropriate illustration by readers in large urban areas, the pair of Marcellus students could not see this incident as any cause of friction in their school where young people could easily join friends anywhere in a line. "Instead," the boy suggested, "an excellent illustration could be developed around drag racing." He went on to offer an example of what he meant. His enthusiasm was obvious. At this point, the girl interposed to explain that his proposed illustration left her cold and would not appeal to any of her friends. She in turn offered a substitute illustration which failed to elicit any favorable response from the boy. Teachers who are preparing conceptual materials should not become discouraged when faced with such problems. They must remember at all times that their objective is the development of a concept in the mind of the student and that reaction to one or more illustrations may in no way be indicative of the success or lack of success in achieving such development.

Throughout the conferences, as in the earlier written comments, there was continuing criticism of the tests prepared to evaluate the experiment. These tests have proved, as indicated in the report above, to have been most useful in determining the learnability of concepts. However, at the level of any one classroom, the teacher remains the best judge of the achievement of behavioral objectives. A teacher in a school which had used pupil materials with students whose IQ's ranged from 85 to 110 commented that while "the vocabulary was very difficult," the students did "enjoy reading" the unit, and have a "better understanding of the concepts they studied, regardless of what the tests indicated."

Another teacher in a junior high school with a "fairly large concentration of Negro and Puerto Rican children" added, after a comment on the difficulty of vocabulary and the length of reading assignments, that the materials offered "an interesting variation from the conventional and traditional approach," to which the students responded either by resistance or enthusiasm. In questioning students, in later interviews, the staff found that whether a student resisted or was enthusiastic he had developed the concept as intended by the staff. It was the non-committal or moderate student who was more likely to have missed the point.

SUMMARY

Feed-back and formal evaluation has led the Center staff to simplify vocabulary without writing down to students. More important, the staff has decided that effective units can well be worked into a curriculum by using standard course materials for the facts and information needed to trigger discovery of a concept. This will eliminate the need for much lengthy material which would require an allotment of a large block of class time relatively unrelated to the overall course in question. It is obvious that the "one shot" try-out is not a completely reliable method for evaluating the effectiveness of the approach taken by the Curriculum Center. Time limits, false starts, lengthy conferences, mechanical problems, and difficulties common to any innovation have been encountered, and they minimized some of the contributions that might be expected of an on-going project. Overall, however, the Center has reasons to believe on the basis of the above evaluation material that it has demonstrated the learnability and teachability of social science concepts within the social studies curriculum.

CHAPTER X

INTERIM DISSEMINATION OF CENTER REPORTS

When the Social Studies Curriculum Center staff accepted the invitation of the New York State Council for the Social Studies to address the general session of its annual meeting in February, 1965, it became necessary for the Center to look upon its own work for the first time with a view to communicating its findings to the profession. At that point, identification of thirty-four major concepts for the social studies had just been completed. The response to the staff presentation revealed such hunger by the social studies teachers for any new materials or leads with which they could work in re-developing their curriculum that the entire problem of continuing dissemination of information by the Center became a primary concern of the staff.

This was one more task which, like that of developing definitions through outlines, had not been anticipated in the original projecting of the five-year work load of the Social Studies Curriculum Center. As a result of the New York State Council for the Social Studies annual meeting of 1965, members of the staff were bombarded with requests to meet with the faculty of single schools, of small groups of schools, of county organizations, and of regional councils. In addition to these numerous meetings, the Center offered further presentations at the annual meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies in Miami in November, 1965. Throughout 1965 and 1966, the staff continued to meet with state and local organizations, heading panels and consulting with faculty involved in curriculum revision. In February, 1966, the Center again offered a program at the annual meeting of the New York State Council for the Social Studies. By this time it was possible for Mrs. Verna Fancett to present a series of transparencies which she had used in her early trial of the pupil material of the concept Cause and Effect. More and more of the Center time was being occupied by fulfilling requests for appearances before workshops and regional councils involved in curriculum revision. Dr. Price was being invited to consult with State Department of Education officers and with other publicly financed centers for curriculum development from California to New York. The research resources which had been allocated to the Center for its five-year program naturally limited the size of the staff. It became necessary to weigh all invitations against the work load of the staff in achieving its original objectives. More and more frequently it became necessary to refuse invitations to consult with, or to present programs to, groups of teachers.

During the summer of 1966, Dr. Hickman explained the work of the Social Studies Curriculum Center and its findings to date before a gathering of the State Specialists of the Social Studies holding their first annual meeting at Tufts University. This group, in its comments and questions, noted a need for someone to clarify the definition of the term concept and the idea of conceptual learning in the social studies for faculty throughout the country. Such definitions were available, but apparently were not being disseminated among the great majority of the classroom teachers. Some schools, and even some states, were listing concepts to be taught by social studies teachers. At least the title of the lists they were presenting indicated these were concepts. However, if the accepted definition of the term 'concept' as used by such outstanding educators as Jerome Bruner was applied, these so-called lists of concepts frequently turned out to be lists of generalizations, or of facts. The problem was not one of a lack of available information concerning concepts and their use, but of dissemination among the people who were to apply concepts to their curriculum.

Dr. Price contacted the school officials of the Jamesville-Dewitt Central School, where Mrs. Verna Fancett, a teacher-consultant on the staff, was chairman of the social studies. This school generously permitted Mrs. Fancett to take one semester's leave of absence to enable her to work full time with the Social Studies Curriculum Center. Her assignment was to review the professional literature on concepts and on the application of the inquiry and discovery method of teaching. She was then to prepare a brief summary and interpretation of application of these theories for classroom teachers. Throughout her work, Mrs. Fancett kept in mind the heavy work load and busy schedules of the social studies classroom teachers. She continually reduced the length of the materials she was preparing and re-worked them to the simplest form possible. This was not done as a reflection on the capacity of classroom teachers to handle the many scholarly materials already available; rather, this condensing and re-working was directed toward the final product of a brief handbook, which the busiest teacher could quickly scan and use as a ready reference in preparing or teaching concepts in local schools.

This manuscript defining the term 'concept' and explaining the use of concepts in the classroom was coming more and more into demand by the teachers. Almost every Staff presentation of the findings of the Center turned up a request by the audience for a brief readable discussion of the use of concepts. By this time Dr. Price was being asked by universities in several states to participate in summer workshops for teachers and curriculum consultants. Dr. Hickman, likewise, was addressing graduate seminars on other campuses. Teachers who were working for their advanced degrees on these various campuses were increasingly concerned by the many varying local interpretations of conceptual learning. During the summer of 1966, Dr. Eunice Johns reviewed the Fancett manuscript as an outside consultant and offered several suggestions for a final revision. She also assisted Dr. Hickman in the final editing of the manuscript. This handbook, entitled Social Science Concepts and The Classroom, became available in early 1968. A public domain version, with all quotations from copyrighted sources removed from the text, is included in the appendix of the Social Studies Curriculum Center final report to the United States Office of Education.

As it became increasingly necessary for the Center staff to turn away invitations to meet with organizations and to consult with faculty groups, visitors representing these organizations came to the campus for further information. School representatives arrived from Canada, Ethiopia, India, and other foreign countries, as well as from schools from Maine to Texas. Hundreds of inquiries arrived by mail, most by this time requesting the type of information which was in the Fancett manuscript. The staff had been far too busy preparing materials to keep statistical charts on the types of inquiries which were arriving. It cannot, therefore, be reported as to the actual number of inquiries and requests for materials. A rough estimate would place these inquiries in the neighborhood of ten thousand. This figure represents fulfilled requests for approximately 7,000 copies of _Major Concepts for the Social Studies_, and by the amount of additional secretarial staff, which it was necessary to retain for the sole purpose of handling requests for information from the Center. Obviously, the problem of dissemination at an interim stage as well as at the completion of a research project in social studies curriculum must be considered in future planning as a major part of the work load of any curriculum group. The Syracuse Social Studies Curriculum Center had not been prepared for this load and did not have the financial or staff resources to meet it adequately, as there had been no previous experience by centers to indicate the importance of such dissemination.

Throughout the last year and a half of its work, the Center has been bombarded by requests for a popular version of its final report. Therefore, preparation of such a publication has been planned to parallel the development of the final official report to the United States Office of Education.

CHAPTER XI

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The conclusions of the Social Studies Curriculum Center at Syracuse University, with regard to the teaching of major concepts for the social studies, are relatively definite and can be listed briefly. However, in addition, the five year research and development project has taught the staff of the Center many things with regard to their methods and materials, which may also be of value to individuals and groups who would wish to carry on their own development of a conceptually oriented curriculum. We offer, therefore, the following brief comments concerning staff operations.

PARTICIPATION BY SCHOLARS

The wealth of material provided in position papers contracted by the Social Studies Curriculum Center was only briefly tapped in the process of the identification of major concepts. Clues to scores of further concepts are available in those position papers. Without these position papers, the staff would never have produced the same list of identified concepts, which it eventually presented for further research and testing.

It is unlikely that any individual or small group working on curriculum development, including research staffs at state levels, can provide themselves with sufficient sound social science resources for the identification and definition of social studies concepts, or for the design of pupil materials for these concepts. Scholars may not be able to produce source materials in the form or language appropriate for social studies. This is best done by those persons familiar with the teaching in the elementary and secondary schools. On the other hand, few persons working with elementary and secondary education have had the time to explore the depths of any one social science discipline, as have some university scholars. Cooperation between these two groups is essential.

Advantages accrued from having the Maxwell School social scientists of various disciplines work together. The early seminars, as well as later meeting, provided an opportunity for scholars to question each other and to appreciate where basic concepts from their discipline would match concepts from other social science disciplines. If any curriculum team decides to retain consulting scholars, the experience at Syracuse University would indicate much more effective consultations if the consulting scholars were from several disciplines and had an opportunity to work together in the early stages of their consultation.

Syracuse University benefited indirectly from this project. The University staff became more closely identified with what is, and should be, taught in schools below the college level. Several of the scholars involved have indicated that their approach both to their incoming college students and to the material which they teach has been affected by their first confrontation with the programs offered below the college level.

The value of bridging the gap between the scholar and the teacher should be obvious. Both gained from this cooperation. The teacher is more aware of the need to preserve the integrity of the disciplines; the scholar is compelled to sift the materials of his discipline and to distinguish the essentials and the major concepts from the details pertinent only to fellow scholars.

After consultants from the disciplines have met with each other and have individually prepared source materials or position papers for a curriculum team, the team will profit by bringing those scholars together with the entire curriculum team. A few joint meetings at this stage contribute immeasurably to the identification of basic concepts which can cross disciplinary lines without playing violence to the disciplines. At Syracuse, the press of time, which required pupil materials to be in the hands of experimenting classes as early in an academic year as possible, made it impractical to have all of the consulting scholars read all of the pupil material growing from the position papers. This was unfortunate. It appears to the Social Studies Curriculum Center staff that a reading of this material by the contributing scholars could not only have strengthened the materials but might have triggered further suggestions for new concepts by these scholars.

Position papers are likely to be of varying levels of usefulness. Any group retaining scholars to prepare such basic material will find it desirable to have other scholars of the same disciplines review these materials. No curriculum staff should rely solely upon its own members for the basic resource material from which concepts will be mined. Otherwise, the situation would resemble a group of miners mining the very claims which they themselves have salted. They know in advance the concepts which can be found in the resource materials and have gained nothing by the step of preparing resource materials. A team which does not rely on outside scholars for the preparation of some type of position papers is only wasting its time going through the motions of concept identification and definition. They might just as well sit down and immediately list those concepts they have already in mind.

PUPIL MATERIALS

It is possible to identify concepts suitable for use in grades 7-12. We believe it equally practical to identify concepts for K-6, although our preparation of pupil materials at Syracuse University has been concentrated in grades 7-12. Depth studies of a concept, in a form not previously available to secondary or junior high school students, can be developed in forms understandable to them.

Materials on concepts can be introduced into existing curricula rather than requiring a reorganization of the present framework. The individual pupil materials tried out in public and private schools by the Social Studies Curriculum Center were lengthy, and would require a reorganization of the present curriculum.

If two or three weeks are required to handle a conceptual unit, and if only such units are taught during the year, a social studies course will consist of learning somewhere between ten and fifteen concepts, and nothing else. The materials designed by the Social Studies Curriculum Center staff necessarily repeated material covered elsewhere in the social studies. However, this illustrative material was deliberately selected from the body of material which would at some time or another be covered in a social studies curriculum. This permitted the Center to draw the conclusion that if students were offered these same ideas and bits of information at various times throughout a course, in such a manner as to permit its easy recall at a later date, these ideas and bits of information could become the basic illustrations from which a student would develop a concept at the appropriate time during the course. One or two days, at a point determined by the teacher, are all that is required to tie together those facts from which the student can discover a major concept.

When a conceptual unit is to be inserted in the on-going curriculum, it should be as concise as possible. Writers should know what is being taught by that teacher earlier in that same course. Repetition should be avoided, except where reinforcement appears desirable.

It is important that the future voters of America know the correct meaning of certain technical terms which will be used over and over by statesmen, economists, and social scientists. Rather than ignoring these terms as too difficult for social studies students, teachers would be well advised to remember that for most students the secondary school social studies are the last exposure the students will ever have to a course in the social sciences. We cannot say a sixteen-year-old or an eighteen-year-old is too young or too immature to study the problems of nationalism or marketing, if three years later, with no further courses, he is to be handed the ballot. Curriculum teams, working on the preparation of pupil materials, would be well advised to use technical terms while avoiding jargonese. These terms should be simplified and illustrated wherever possible. The technique found most effective by the Center has been to offer an illustration and a definition prior to the actual use of the term. The term then becomes the short label, which the student discovers after digesting the definition.

MECHANICAL PROBLEMS

Problems in the mechanics of administering a research and development project may appear relatively unimportant in relation to the overall objectives and findings of a project. On the other hand, groups of teachers or other organizations working with curriculum may be able to save time and better utilize their resources if they are at least aware of the more general problems.

Any group intending to develop pupil materials for the elementary grades should be aware from the beginning of the extremely difficult task of finding anyone who can write for elementary children. Not even large commercial organizations, offering salaries well above those available in the schools, can find adequate elementary school writing staff in response to their advertisements in such publications as the Sunday New York Times. A good writer of elementary school pupil materials must be aware of the vocabulary changes which occur within classes at any one grade level during a year. A good writer of social studies materials for the elementary schools should have a background in the reading problems of the elementary student, as well as a knowledge of several of the social science disciplines. Do not count on finding a writer of elementary school materials on the staff of any school which becomes interested in curriculum design and improvement.

The permanent staff of the Social Studies Curriculum Center at Syracuse University was too small. When the first proposal was presented to the United States Office of Education in 1963, no one could foresee the need for hundreds of pages of outlines, thousands of pages of drafts of pupil materials, and the hundreds of copies of tests and other materials required by experimental schools. Any group planning on curriculum development, which includes the preparation of pupil materials, should be aware of the need of several secretaries assigned permanently to the curriculum staff. The Social Studies Curriculum Center at Syracuse experienced delays of several months because of the large volume of material prepared by writers and consultants which funneled into a secretarial bottleneck. Graduate assistants assigned to the project varied in performance. Some were excellent; two were discovered to have the rare ability to write for secondary school students; several brought with them a high degree of pre-doctoral scholarship within their disciplines. On the other hand, the other obligations on the campus and the impermanence of residence in the area made it difficult to depend on graduate students in long range planning extending beyond eighteen months to twenty-four months.

The United States Office of Education has recognized the problem facing research centers which abide by the requirement to place all new materials in the public domain. A contract with the United States Office of Education has usually contained a statement ot the effect that any materials developed by the parties of the contract would be placed in the public domain. The desirable reasons for this clause are obvious. By now, the drawbacks are equally obvious. Any individual or group of individuals seeking support for curriculum development should be aware of the grave handicap involved if their contract includes a clause requiring all materials to be placed in the public domain. The United States Office of Education recognizes this handicap and is cooperating in every way possible with researchers.

The Social Studies Curriculum Center at Syracuse prepared materials such as the tenth and eleventh grade paper entitled History and the Historian. The equivalent of twenty-four typed pages of that paper were quotations from copyrighted materials. For example, the paper is introduced with three quotations, each a description of Napoleon Bonaparte. The descriptions varied from a condemnation of Napoleon to a portrait of Napoleon as a saviour of the Western world. Pupils were to read the three interpretations and then discuss the question of how three historians could come up with three such different versions and still be called historians. Experimental copies of this paper had to be destroyed after being used in the experimental classrooms. The public domain version required that all quotations drawn from copyrighted publications be deleted. After all, no commercial publisher is free to place his contracted authors' materials in public domain. The legal interpretation of this varies, but the Center found that in writing more than thirty publishing houses only one would risk permitting its authors' material to be used in a publication which would be placed in public domain. The importance of this cannot be over-emphasized for small groups of teachers who may work long hours and summer vacations, and use all their alloted resources, only to find they cannot reproduce their material for use in the classroom.

Student comments from several states indicate that a depth study of a concept was welcomed because it provided more intellectual stimulation than the usual textbook. However, experimentation has also made it evident that the teacher is the key person in determining the degree of success in a teaching experiment. Students may be presented the same experimental material in two schools; these students may have similar backgrounds and similar abilities, but in one school will become extremely excited about the conceptual approach while missing the point in the second school.

Evaluation of teaching materials will be difficult for any curriculum team, cooperation of evaluation experts. The great variation in teaching procedures and the effectiveness with which teachers use pupil materials is such that no one school should jump to a conclusion that the results in a neighboring school are indicative of the effectiveness of new procedures or materials on a statewide or nationwide basis.

The Social Studies Curriculum Center at Syracuse found the need for audiovisual materials to accompany its pupil units. Some, such as transparencies, could be produced. However, the production of motion pictures and video tapes was far too expensive to be handled in the quantity required.

A group of schools, or a state departments of education, will undoubtedly encounter many of the same difficulties facing the Syracuse staff in distributing experimental materials. After overcoming the problem of distribution to similar geographic areas, to pre-determined ability levels, and to control groups, there was the additional problem of the individual cooperating teachers' schedule. We recommend that wherever possible cooperating teachers be informed at least one year in advance of the time they are expected to try out materials. Only in this way can they each make the adjustments necessary to assure an extensive tryout during the same days of the year.

The problem of designing a scope and sequence for the development of concepts was frequently discussed by the Center. This approach was abandoned and should be checked with great care before being adopted by other groups interested in curriculum development. To do an adequate research and development task, involving scope and sequence from kindergarten through twelfth grade, requires at least triple the staff and finances available to the average Project Social Studies center.

TEACHER PARTICIPATION

Cooperation by teachers is uncertain. Thousands of teachers are eager to try new approaches to instruction. However, teachers should spend considerable time and energy summarizing results of an experiment in which they take part. This is frequently impossible. Materials may be tried out, but the feedback to their originators may be disappointing, or even nonexistent. As in all other teaching, the effectiveness of concept development appears to depend largely on the skill, enthusiasm, and creativity which a teacher brings to his task.

The question of whether teachers' guides should accompany each unit and whether or not teacher orientation conferences should be held before the experimental units are taught is still undecided. The original intent of the Center at Syracuse was to furnish teacher guides and to hold teacher orientation conferences, in which both scholars from the disciplines and teachers from secondary schools would spend two days briefing all teachers of experimental classes. The evaluation experts contracted by the Center spoke strongly against such procedure. They pointed out that tests prepared by them were supposed to evaluate the ability of the student to develop concepts from the pupil materials prepared by the Center. In their opinion, an orientation of cooperating teachers by experts on such subjects as nationalism or historical method would make evaluation of the pupil materials impossible. Instead, any tests would be evaluating the effectiveness of the teacher orientation and briefing.

EVALUATION PROCEDURES

For any group working with concepts, there will always be an evaluation problem. Illustrative materials, facts, ideas, and other portions of pupil materials may be checked by objective tests. However, a more complicated testing procedure is generally necessary to determine whether or not a student has developed a specific concept. The evaluation tools should be determining whether or not the behavioral objectives have been achieved. Can a student now apply his newly developed concept to that generalizing he must do when making decision?

The problem of testing have been discussed in Chapter IX, but we should again note that limitations of time will usually prevent the use of the type of tests, with illustrative readings, which best evaluate the achievement of behavioral objectives. The teacher can best determine the achivement of these objectives, but such evaluation always is influenced by the variables of teacher background and competency. When time permits, the Syracuse Center recommends extensive spot interviews of experimental pupils by those who prepare conceptual materials for tryout.

Almost all schools not a part of a large system will find difficulty in securing reports on tests by deadline dates, and will discover the establishment of adequate control sections an extremely difficult detail to overcome.

WHAT ELSE MIGHT HAVE BEEN DONE?

Had funds, time, and staff permitted there are several further things the Syracuse Social Studies Curriculum Center would have liked to do. These included:

1. Grouping concepts and sub-concepts according to major subject areas at the secondary school level.
2. Going beyond the social studies and demonstrate how certain concepts can be developed in cooperation with more than one subject are (i.e., English, social studies, and biology).
3. Developing illustrative conceptual materials for a simple concept at several grade levels and for varying ability levels within a grade.
4. Developing guides for use by teachers.
5. Issuing periodic reports, such as a newsletter.
6. Classifying concepts according to some other schema.
7. Developing multi-media approaches to concept development (film loops, slides, recordings, etc.)
8. Developing an illustrative scope and sequence chart according to some fairly standard curriculum pattern.
9. Attempting to identify concepts not now included in Major Concepts for the Social Studies.
10. Selecting clusters of concepts dealing with significant contemporary problems and publishing materials around these clusters.

CONCLUSIONS

The Social Studies Curriculum Center at Syracuse University finds the selection of basic concepts for inclusion in the social studies curriculum is both feasible and desirable.

As a concept is developed it usually overlaps with other concepts, thereby requiring attention to a cluster of other concepts or "sub-concepts."

Concepts can be developed for groups of varying ability and at different levels of maturity in the 7-12sequence.

Contributions by scholars provide authoritative statements and are a valuable resource in preparing pupil materials.

The interdisciplinary approach in the social studies enhances the development of any social science concept. This approach should be extended beyond the disciplines of the social sciences and include disciplines from the humanities and the natural and physical sciences. The more disciplines involved in the development of a concept, the deeper and broader will be the meaning of that concept for the pupil.

A scope and sequence for inclusion of concepts in the curriculum can probably best be designed at the local level because of the variation of curriculum patterns even within a county. Furthermore, ability levels of students will affect any scope and sequence design. Teachers need to be directly involved in making such sweeping curriculum decisions.

Teachers' guides should be prepared to accompany conceptual materials. Even the staff at the Syracuse Center could not agree on interpretations and definitions without a common base of reference materials.

A larger permanent staff is desirable for such research and development programs as undertaken by the Syracuse Social Studies Curriculum Center. Too many strands which were spun off from the central problem had to be abandonned for lack of time, money, and staff. Of one thing, the Center is certain; it only scratched the surface of a promising approach to the teaching of social studies. But in scratching that surface, the Center believes it has focused the attention of thousands of teachers, major textbooks publishers and state departments of education on the role of concepts in the teaching of the social studies.

CHAPTER XII

CURRICULUM CENTER PERSONNEL

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Appendix to final report, The Social Studies Curriculum Center of Syracuse University Devoted to the Identification of Major Social Science Concepts and their Utilization in Instructional Materials.

FINAL REPORT - Project Number 1620.1086

Cooperative Research Project No: HS-081

MAJOR CONCEPTS for the SOCIAL STUDIES
and
THEIR UTILIZATION in INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

May 31, 1969

Social Studies Curriculum Center
Syracuse University
Syracuse, New York

Roy A. Price, Director

TE 429 240

Introductory Note

This report should be read in conjunction with the more extensive and detailed 185-page Final Report, June 1968 (copy attached), which covers at length, in both descriptive and analytic form, the activities of the Syracuse University Social Studies Curriculum Center from 1963 to 1968.

This report is a summary only of the major activities of the Social Studies Curriculum Center, between June 1968 and 31 May 1969.

I Contents - The following topics are covered in this report:

A. Purpose
B. Background
C. Major Activities of Reporting Period
D. Staff Summary
E. Conclusions
F. Summary of Impact

II Purpose - During this year, 1968/69, the Syracuse University Social Studies Curriculum Center, directed by Dr. Roy A. Price and operating under the unexpended balance of the original grant and approval from the contract office of the U. S. Office of Education, began adapting previously identified Major Concepts from the Social Studies to instructional materials for the urban disadvantaged learner.

III Background - Funded originally in 1963 by the U.S.O.E., the Syracuse University SSCC, utilizing scholars from the social science disciplines, began a search to identify the major concepts of the several social science disciplines. By 1965, more than 100 such concepts had been identified and defined by these scholars. The results of this research were published that year by the SSCC in Major Concepts for the Social Studies.

The following three years were spent accomplishing three objectives: the identification of new concepts for the social studies, the development of experimental curriculum units based on some of the previously identified concepts, and the preparation of a second publication, Major Social Science Concepts in the Classroom (1968).

During the years 1966/67 and 1967/68, the SSCC director and assistant director worked with Syracuse University Experienced Teacher Fellowship Programs, providing consultation, guidance and continuity through a 6-hour core seminar, "New Viewpoints in the Social Sciences." The unifying activity of this seminar was the preparation by the Fellows of curriculum units based on the Major Concepts and utilizing an interdisciplinary area study as material content. High school teaching units were thus developed for Asian Studies, African Studies, Latin American Studies, and Russian/Soviet Studies for use by these Fellows upon their return to their respective school districts across the country.

IV Major Activities During Present Period (1 June 1968 - 31 May 1969)

During the present period, the major activity has centered on the adaptation of previously identified Major Social Science Concepts for curricular materials for the Urban Disadvantaged Learner.

During the summer, 1968, Jan Saltzgaber was employed as a Research Assistant to survey the literature concerned with the urban disadvantaged learner, his environment, attitudes, beliefs and skills. This activity resulted in the preparation of an annotated bibliography of approximately 200 entries.

During this period, Dr. Eunice Johns was employed to develop a prototype model for media method modules based on the Major Concepts.

In autumn, 1968, Mr. Saltzgaber completed a draft of the values, attitudes and beliefs of the urban disadvantaged learner and an outline of the work to be completed was developed. Following is an outline of the projected work:

NO.	TITLE	CONTENT
I.	"The Urban Disadvantaged Learner"	-UDL's perception of ghetto & effects -Characteristics of ghetto school & effects -UDL: Attitudes and values -Taxonomy of UDL characteristics - Social & educational needs of UDL
II.	"The Role of Concepts"	-Meaning of Concepts -Kinds of Concepts -Functions of Concepts -Concepts and special problems of UDL -Rationale for specific concepts

NO.	TITLE	CONTENT
		- Making UDL "feel good" about himself -Being relevant -Being firmly flexible -Non-verbal student-orientation -Process of concept-formation -Inquiry and the Wonder of discovery -Realism and relevance -Original and primary material -Working from real experiences -Mis"concept"ions and compensation -High immediate success factor -Immediacy
III.	"The Role of the Teacher"	
IV.	"Major Social Studies Concepts"	-Dignity -Self Identity -Morality and Choice -Equality -Habitat and Its Significance -Culture -Institution -Law and Society -Power -Conflict and its Resolution -Social Interaction -Empathy -Inquiry -Multiple Causation -Objectivity
V.	"Illustrative Media-Method Teaching Modules"	-Dignity -Culture -Social Interaction -Objectivity

During the winter (1968/69), a second draft of Chapter I was completed, initial drafts of Chapters II and III were done, and outlines of the concepts for Chapter IV were completed. During the spring (1969), original drafts were prepared for the Concepts in Chapter IV, with the exception of morality and choice and empathy. No work has been accomplished on Chapter V.

V. Human Relations Course

During the autumn, 1968, four graduate assistants were employed the the SSCC, in cooperation with the Syracuse Public Schools, for the purpose of developing and teaching a course in Human Relations, utilizing the Major Concepts, and aimed for the Urban Disadvantaged, although the course, as taught in the classrooms of this city, actually included a cross-section of students. The human relations component continued throughout the second term of the second year under funding by the Syracuse Public Schools, with the SSCC continuing to provide guidance and coordination, and Syracuse University remitted tuition. Most of the actual accomplishments of this experimental Human Relations component were in the area of process, although a tentative outline of content and structure was developed.

VI. Staff Summary

Project Director -	Roy A. Price	
Coordinator -	Richard Tabors	(1 June 68 to 1 Feb 69)
	Brian Larkin	(1 Feb 69 to 31 May 69)
Secretary -	Kathleen Kennedy	(1 Aug 68 to 28 Feb 69)
	Madeline Rathbun	(10 Mar 69 to 31 May 69)
Graduate Assistants -	Jan Saltzgaber	(1 June 68 to 31 May 69)
	Wayne Mahood	(1 Sept 68 to 31 May 69)
	Grace French	(1 Sept 68 to 31 May 69)
	Brian Larkin	(1 Sept 68 to 1 Feb 69)
	Claire Hush	(1 Sept 68 to 1 Feb 69)
	Jennifer Klein	(1 Feb 69 to 31 May 69)
	David Fendrick	(1 Sept 68 to 1 Feb 69)
	Joseph Panaro	(1 Sept 68 to 1 Feb 69)
	James Ritter	(1 Sept 68 to 1 Feb 69)
	Japhet Zwana	(1 Sept 68 to 1 Feb 69)

Persons Paid From Other Funds: Roy A. Price

VII. Conclusion - While the Syracuse University Social Studies Curriculum Center will officially close on 31 May 1969, at least until such time as additional funding is obtained, the thrust of the previous work will be continued in part in other ways. The Syracuse University Division of Summer Sessions has employed the SSCC coordinator to offer a course this summer, "Major Social Studies Concepts and the Classroom." (See attached letter) Second, the Syracuse Triple "T" Project will utilize the Major Concepts, and the consulting services of former SSCC Personnel.

The work of the human relations component is being carried on by the Syracuse Triple "T" Project. During the summer 1969, teachers from the Syracuse public schools, one teacher from East Syracuse-Minoa School District, social science professors and education professors, and a graduate assistant from Syracuse University will work together, utilizing the previous SSCC human relations experimental materials to develop a course for the 1969/70 school year. During that year, under the same project, this team will continue to develop and review and tryout the material.

VIII. Summary of Impact of SSCC on the Social Studies

In 1965, the Social Studies Curriculum Center published its first work, Major Concepts for the Social Studies, which identified and defined 34 of the major social science concepts. More than 20,000 copies of that work have been purchased to date by universities, colleges, school systems, curriculum development projects, libraries and individual teachers at all levels from kindergarten to Ph.D. in nearly every state and several foreign countries. Three years later, in 1968, a companion work was published by the Curriculum Center, Social Science Concepts and the Classroom. Already, more than 5,000 copies of this work have been purchased. Among the orders received in today's mail for these two works is one from New Zealand.

These works are used as texts in social studies methods and in curriculum courses across the country, and as the basis of numerous curriculum development projects, of which Clark County, Pennsylvania is only one. In Baltimore County, Maryland, these works are used in an in-service teacher education project.

Again, the impact of the work of the Syracuse University Social Studies Curriculum Center has been considerable in terms of its effect on the forty Experienced Teacher Fellows who participated in the Syracuse University ETF Program and in turn, by their effect on social studies curriculum development across the nation. Each participant was selected in part on the basis of his responsibilities in curriculum development in his school system or district.

Finally, the Social Studies Curriculum Center staff has been in constant demand as consultants to public schools and curriculum development projects.
A videotape presentation of the Major Concepts for the Social Studies was made by Dr. Roy A. Price, SSCC Director, in 1967, in cooperation with WCNY/TV, ECCO, and the New York State Education Department. This program was part of a multi-country social studies workship, and the tape has been used in conjunction with several social studies workshops since. For example, in 1968, the tape was used together with a tele-learning telephone conference hookup by the RSEC-ETV system in Stamford, New York, Title III Center for a social studies workshop involving the schools in a four-county area.

Finally, it should be noted that requests are received daily from all parts of the country for pupil material based on the concepts, and for any other material relating to the major concepts and their use in curriculum and in the classroom.

The impact has been significant. An important base of research has been established. Much that could and should be done remains yet to be done.

Roy A. Price, Director 31 May 1969